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TE 2-69

Fischer Replaces Koontz As NEA President

Federal Study Foresees Continued Shortage of Teaching Personnel

Over 20 Percent of Black Children In Desegregated Southern Schools

Most Big Cities Elect Members for Their School Boards

London Gets Instructional TV

Survey Reveals Gap Between College Trustee and Student

NEWS AND TRENDS

Fischer Replaces Koontz As NEA President

On February 7, the United States Senate confirmed the appointment of Elizabeth D. Koontz as director of the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. Mrs. Koontz, who resigned as NEA president to accept the post, has also been named a U.S. representative to the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women.

George D. Fischer, an Iowa high school teacher who was chosen NEA vice-president last summer, assumed the presidency on January 20.

Federal Study Foresees Continued Shortage of Teaching Personnel

A recent government report seriously challenges the validity of predictions that the teacher shortage is easing. The report, based on a study made by the U.S. Office of Education at the request of Congress, says there will continue to be a paucity not only of teachers but also of all kinds of educational personnel at all levels.

The report contradicts estimates by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. A recent article in the Bureau's *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* says that the supply of teachers may exceed the demand for them by 1975. The article further suggests that "more women must turn to other, high-demand professions."

The Office of Education study warns, however, that ever-increasing demands on education and increasing expectations require not only more and better prepared teachers but also additional and more competent administrators and auxiliary personnel. In fact, the USOE report says, "the very word *teacher* as we now define it will be inadequate to describe the variety of people and skills we will need to serve our schools."

Over 20 Percent of Black Children In Desegregated Southern Schools

Of the 2.5 million Negro students in southern school districts, 518,607 (20.3 percent) are attending schools with white children, according to preliminary estimates by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This is an increase of 6.4 percent over the 1967-68 school year.

The estimates also show that desegregation takes place more rapidly under voluntary programs than under court orders. In the school districts desegregating under the requirements of Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, 25.6 percent of the black children are attending schools with white children. In districts desegregating under court order, only 11.5 percent of black children attend schools with white children.

Most Big Cities Elect Members For Their School Boards

Most big cities have an elected board of education, according to a new survey of the 50 cities in the Council of Big City Boards of Education of the National School Boards Association. The survey found that 39 of the 50 cities have an elected board (only four have a partisan election), 10 have an appointed board, and one has an appointed board that is confirmed by the electorate. The average board member is a white businessman who holds an unsalaried four-year post on a seven-man board.

London Gets Instructional TV

Instructional television became part of the London scene this school year as students in 300 inner city schools, colleges, and institutes began receiving programs. Plans call for expansion of the program to reach all London educational establishments within a year.

Survey Reveals Gap Between College Trustee and Student

The college and university trustee has a different outlook on life from faculty and students. This is the unsurprising conclusion of a national survey of 5,200 trustees by the Educational Testing Service. The survey found that 58 percent of the trustees are Republicans and only 15 percent call themselves liberals. Most professors are Democrats.

The typical trustee is a white (96 percent), Protestant (75 percent), male (86 percent), over 50 years old (73 percent). More than half have an average annual income of more than $30,000. The majority of trustees, especially those in public junior colleges, are unwilling to give students a share in decision making. The most willing are from high-prestige private institutions.

Trustees generally favor a hierarchical system in which decisions are made at the top and passed "down." Over 50 percent of the total sample believes that faculty and students should not have major authority in half of 16 selected

Today's Education

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This month's cover

As sinister as a scorpion, the spoon and needle of the drug addict may lurk in the otherwise innocent clutter of a young girl's purse. Since wishful thinking will not do away with the drug scene that confronts us, we need to be armed with accurate information. See the special feature, pages 35-38.

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Southern Education Foundation Plans 1969-70 Internship Program
Committee Reports Drastic Increase In Demand for Math Education
Drug Abuse Council Formed
Fulbright-Hays Deadline Set
Names in the News

decisions. Trustees would limit student authority to matters like housing, cheating, and sororities.

The survey also shows that 69 percent of the trustees responding favor screening campus speakers, 40 percent recommend censoring student publications, 53 percent want professors to sign loyalty oaths, and 27 percent don't believe that faculty members have a right to express their opinions.

Southern Education Foundation Plans 1969-70 Internship Program

The Southern Education Foundation is accepting applications for its 1969-70 internship program. The internship involves a year of practical experience in planning and implementing social, political, and economic changes affecting Southern educational systems and educational opportunities for Negroes.

To qualify, an individual should have a bachelor's degree, plus a minimum of two years of education or experience, and be 23 to 33 years old, single, and Southern. Monthly stipends range from $575 to $625. Address inquiries to Mrs. Virginia Frank, Southern Education Foundation, 1501 18th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Committee Reports Drastic Increase In Demand for Math Education

A committee of the National Research Council has recently assessed the growing demand for education in the mathematical sciences and the consequent need for increased federal support. The mathematical sciences include not only pure and applied mathematics but also such allied fields as statistics, computer science, and operations research.

The committee found that at the collegiate level the increased call for mathematical course work comes not only from more majors in the mathematical sciences but also from majors in the physical sciences and engineering, the biological and social sciences, and elementary and secondary school teaching.

As a result, at least 8,000 more college teachers of the mathematical sciences will be needed by 1970, the committee reported. The profession, the committee continued, needs "people who can teach mathematics in grade school in a way that will not create a permanent psychological block against mathematics" and "people who are able to teach mathematics in high school and cope with the necessarily changing curriculum."

Drug Abuse Council Formed

Fifty-five professional, governmental, educational, youth, religious, and service organizations have established a National Coordinating Council on Drug Abuse Education and Information. The Council was organized to combat drug abuse through improved communication among member agencies striving to reduce or eliminate drug abuse.

NEA's American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation is a charter member of the Council.

Fulbright-Hays Deadline Set

Applications should be filed by June 1 for Fulbright-Hays appointments for university lecturing and advanced research abroad during 1970-71. The basic application requirements are: U.S. citizenship, a doctoral degree or equivalent status for research; college or university teaching experience for lecturing appointments; in some cases, proficiency in a foreign language. Application forms, a list of openings, and details on the terms of awards for particular countries are available from the Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20418.

Names in the News

James E. Allen, Jr., New York State education commissioner, has been nominated U.S. Commissioner of Education and Assistant Secretary for Education in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. In a telegram to President Nixon, NEA warmly applauded the selection, saying that Dr. Allen "brings to these new assignments wide knowledge of the problems of education, the wisdom to make practical decisions, and the administrative skill to operate programs effectively."

James Farmer, former national director of the Congress of Racial Equality and former teacher at Lincoln (Pa.) University, has been nominated by President Nixon as assistant secretary in the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Harold Benjamin, former dean of the College of Education, University of Maryland, died in January after suffering a stroke. Dr. Benjamin had served on several NEA committees and commissions during his professional career and was also on the committee that drafted the UNESCO charter.

Douglass Cater, former special assistant to the President of the United States, will head a study of the politics of education. To be supported by the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation, the study will examine the political structure underlying education in America on the federal, state, community, and campus level, and will study political problems related to continued growth and vitality in education.

ZIP CODE 20036

This feature is an open forum for TODAY'S EDUCATION *readers. Ideas and opinions expressed here are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. (When writing, please indicate school, position, and home address, including zip code.)*

Museums

I read with interest the article on "Museums and the Schools" by Susan Purvis in the December issue of *Today's Education*. While I was happy to see museums receive some long overdue credit for their educational work with the schools, I am amazed that no mention was made of the Children's Museum owned and operated by the Detroit public schools.

Not only is this the third oldest children's museum in the United States, but it was the first to be totally supported by a school system. Since its inception it has maintained a threefold program of (a) classes for school groups, (b) a lending service of material for teachers, and (c) a program of activities for boys and girls on Saturdays and vacation days. The teaching staff are all certificated teachers.

—Beatrice Parsons, *director, Children's Museum, Detroit public schools.*

♦ *Mrs. Purvis collected so much information about so many museum programs that it was impossible to include it all in a single* TODAY'S EDUCATION *article. In cutting the article to size, the editors attempted to present a sampling of the various kinds of programs in operation.*

Thwarting Readers' Curiosity

I read Professor R. C. Bradley's "Curbing Eager Readers" (January) with antagonism and elevated blood pressure because of his introduction: "What thwarts children's curiosity for reading? *If the job hasn't already been done at the kindergarten level,* the teacher only needs to: . . . ."

Is this open season for condemning kindergarten teachers? I do not believe that such a broad statement implicating all kindergarten teachers is justified.

As president of the New Jersey Association of Kindergarten Teachers, I would like to invite Professor Bradley to come and visit some of our New Jersey kindergartens (he's welcome in mine anytime) and we'll make him eat those words.

—Flora D. Lally, *kindergarten teacher, Lincoln School, New Brunswick, New Jersey.*

Teachers' Dress and Grooming

In response to the article, "Opinions Differ: Teachers' Dress and Grooming," (January) I feel compelled to express an opinion. Most of the article seemed to be concerned with female teachers' dress.

I believe that it would benefit male teachers to conduct their own grooming test, which might include the following item:

Now sit before a mirror
And cross your legs a minute.
Are your hairy legs exposed?
If they are, you're not with it!

—Sally A. Reece, *art instructor, Dallas Community School, Dallas Center, Iowa.*

Words and Music

Edwin A. Movsesian's article, "Reading Music and Reading Words," (January) gives further weight to the already proven value of a good music program. Music has also shown itself to be of great value in helping children with emotional and speech problems, especially stuttering. As children in my classes who have these problems have begun to involve themselves in the rhythmic and melodic flow of music, articulation has improved and comprehension has increased.

I urge teachers who are faced with a group of youngsters made restless by an indoor recess or tests to try a music break. It will work wonders.

—Walter Getchell, *director, Music Department, Williamstown, Massachusetts, public schools.*

Agree or Disagree?

♦ TODAY'S EDUCATION *readers are good correspondents. Boxes of mail arrive at the Journal office every month. Seldom, however, has a single article—and a one-page article at that—evoked more reader comment than has William H. Truesdell's "Teachers Should Commit Themselves" ("You May Not Agree, but . . . ," January). Following are representative excerpts.*

Thank you very much for printing Mr. Truesdell's article. It is unfortunate that there are still administrators in our schools and colleges who believe that the teacher's only task is to impart a certain body of material in the classroom. Any public utterance outside the classroom, even in one's field of competency, is sometimes met with swift reprisal.

For the sin of expressing a personal opinion in a letter to the editor of a national magazine, I suffered financial, social, and professional harassment, inflicted by my superiors in an attempt to force me to resign. That my superiors gave me no opportunity to clarify or defend my statement was an even graver miscarriage of justice. At this time, I am seeking redress through professional channels.

—Name withheld by request.

I have never tried to convince my students that everyone has an opinion on everything. My chief reason for not attempting this is that I don't believe it. There are simply too many issues for everyone to have opinions on all of them.

Class discussions should aid in the formulation of opinions, but I see nothing wrong with the teacher's beginning the discussion by stating his own feelings on the subject.

It may be that in a democratic setting a student will present some information that will change a teacher's opinion. An instructor should be willing to be swayed by a student's argument once in a while if that argument presents a new aspect. The idea that a teacher should always have the last work bespeaks autocracy and indicates a fear of exposing ourselves to the analysis of those we teach.

—Clifford A. Williams, *eighth grade mathematics and social studies teacher, Heppner, Oregon.*

It is much more important for the teacher to motivate the children to commit themselves than it is for him to commit himself. He needs to help them direct their own critical thinking so that they can arrive at their own conclusions.

—Jo Peterson, *fourth grade teacher, Oakview School, Muskegon, Michigan.*

I agree with the title of Mr. Truesdell's article, but I disagree with some of his statements. I believe that he has confused commitment to intellectual and emotional involvement in the great problems of our times with commitment to the

(Continued on page 6)

NEXT MONTH

In a "Searching Mind" article, a noted critic assesses the state of the novel, past, present, and future.

A professor of educational psychology advises how teachers can deal with the disturbed child to help him and at the same time keep him from disrupting the rest of the class.

Astronaut James A. Lovell tells teachers how to keep physically fit.

An educational communications consultant will explain how the proposed copyright law could affect teachers.

"Self-Esteem in the Classroom" suggests ways in which educators can help students develop this vital ingredient.

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(Continued from page 5)

expression of strong opinions on these matters. I agree with the first kind of commitment but disagree with the second.

Mr. Truesdell equates the failure to express a strong opinion with a demonstration of vague ambivalence. He equates the failure to express candid opinions with the rejection of honest inquiry. And he equates the avoidance of public expression of personal opinions with "not giving a damn one way or the other."

Mr. Truesdell's thesis is that everyone should hold and express opinions. Teachers, he says, are no exception to this obligation. I believe, to the contrary, that one professional obligation of teachers is to forgo the expression of their opinions. They should, of course, hold opinions, intellectually and honestly formed, but the expression of these opinions may be intellectually harmful to their students.

—W. N. Steltzer, *science chairman, the Pennington School, Pennington, New Jersey.*

If we are attempting to prepare students for a vital, mature, and intelligent role as citizens in a democratic society, then it is not our job to indoctrinate them with our personal, prejudiced, and biased viewpoints or to play God by telling them what conclusions they should reach. Our job is to give the students an opportunity to discuss, investigate, and evaluate for themselves. We must direct the open forum of free discussion but never appear to be the fountainhead of all knowledge.

—Robert S. Bailey, *Hamilton Terrace School, Berkeley Heights, New Jersey.*

Children are likely to be stifled in their thinking if the teacher makes his opinion known during the class debate. After all, who is to say the teacher is always right? Even when the teacher waits to give his opinion until after the debate is over, too many children who arrived at no decision during the discussion will tend to believe as the teacher does.

—Evelyn R. Murphy, *sixth grade teacher, Main Street School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois.*

One has to agree with Mr. Truesdell's position that teachers must commit themselves for the very obvious reason that they cannot do otherwise. Students can tell a teacher's beliefs by the way he avoids, tempers, or provokes a discussion, or by the way he answers or refuses to answer questions. The teacher cannot hide his opinions, because the expression on his face, the manner of his replies, the references and authorities he quotes all tend to show his position on most issues. Nevertheless, it is still more honest to openly identify beliefs, while at the same time being fair enough to encourage opposing views.

—John L. Scripp III, *studio TV teacher, social studies, Norfolk, Virginia.*

(Continued on page 82)

TEACHER OPINION POLL

Bussing

Bussing, or transporting pupils from one school system to another to achieve racial balance in schools, has been a subject of controversy in a number of metropolitan communities throughout the nation. Some have tried it and reported success. Others have rejected it. Many have argued about it fiercely.

The results of a recent Teacher Opinion Poll show that if the question of bussing between school systems were referred to public school teachers to decide, this method of effecting racial balance would not be used.

The NEA Research Division survey asked a scientifically selected sample of the nation's public school classroom teachers which of the following statements best expressed their views on bussing between school systems:

Children *should be* exchanged between central city and suburban schools.

Children from the central city *should be* transported to suburban schools only.

Children from suburban schools *should be* transported to central city schools only.

Children *should not be* bussed between school systems to achieve racial balance.

Nearly 78 percent of the teachers chose the negative response. The majority of those who favored bussing preferred a mutual exchange of pupils between central city and suburban school districts.

Children *should be* exchanged between central city and suburban schools.	17.4%
Children from the central city *should be* transported to suburban schools only.	4.0
Children from suburban schools *should be* transported to central city schools only.	1.1
Children *should not be* bussed between school systems to achieve racial balance.	77.5

Opinions of urban, suburban, and rural teachers did not differ significantly. Teachers in different regions of the country and in different size school systems also held similar opinions.

—NEA Research Division.

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NEA SPECIAL SERVICES

Automobile Leasing

• **The NEA Special Services Division has** introduced a new service to teachers: automobile leasing. It is presently available in some areas and being expanded to others.

Originally, the Special Services Division looked into the matter of discount purchasing of automobiles for NEA members. But a thorough investigation of all possibilities gradually led to the realization that the best possible service to members could be provided through a car-leasing rather than a discount-purchase service.

The full cooperation of the automobile industry, including manufacturers and dealers, enabled NEA to develop the program and to test it in three pilot areas—Southern California (Los Angeles), Michigan (Detroit), and the D.C.-Maryland-Virginia area (Washington, D.C.).

Several factors make it possible to offer the automobile leasing program to NEA members at economical rates. These include purchasing, financing, and insuring the automobiles at low costs—and administering and managing the program at low costs.

Great national interest has been shown in the leasing program, and requests for the service have come from all over the United States. In order to speed the process of expanding the program, NEA and its Teachers Services Corporation, which operates the service, have developed a program through which state education associations cosponsor the program locally.

States and locations now cosponsoring the automobile leasing program are: California (Southern Section), District of Columbia (including nearby Maryland and Virginia), Florida (Dade County), Florida (Orlando), Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and Texas.

The NEA leasing program offers the following advantages:

• Lower cost. Comparison figures prove that in many cases the NEA program is less expensive than purchasing.

• Low down payment. The required $100 security deposit is substantially less than the usual automobile down payment.

• No shopping headaches. The time-consuming chore of price comparison shopping is eliminated. You have a good deal from the start.

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• Protection from undue depreciation if the lessee decides to purchase the car. Depreciation, one of the highest costs of owning a car, is charged at a set rate, thus guaranteeing the lessee against severe or undue model depreciation.

• Flexible options. At the end of the two-year lease period, the renter may lease another new car, purchase the used one at a stipulated purchase-option price or extend the lease on the used car at a substantially lower rate.

The success of the automobile leasing program thus far leads to the prediction that this service will become one of the most significant and money-saving benefits offered members of professional education associations.

For additional information, write to Teachers Services Corporation, 1156 15th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

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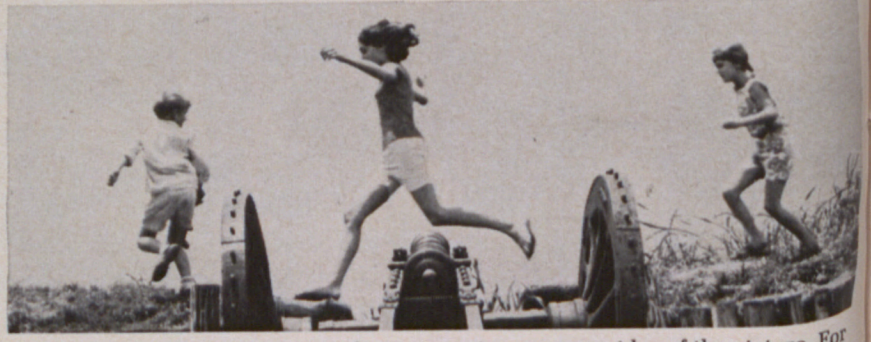

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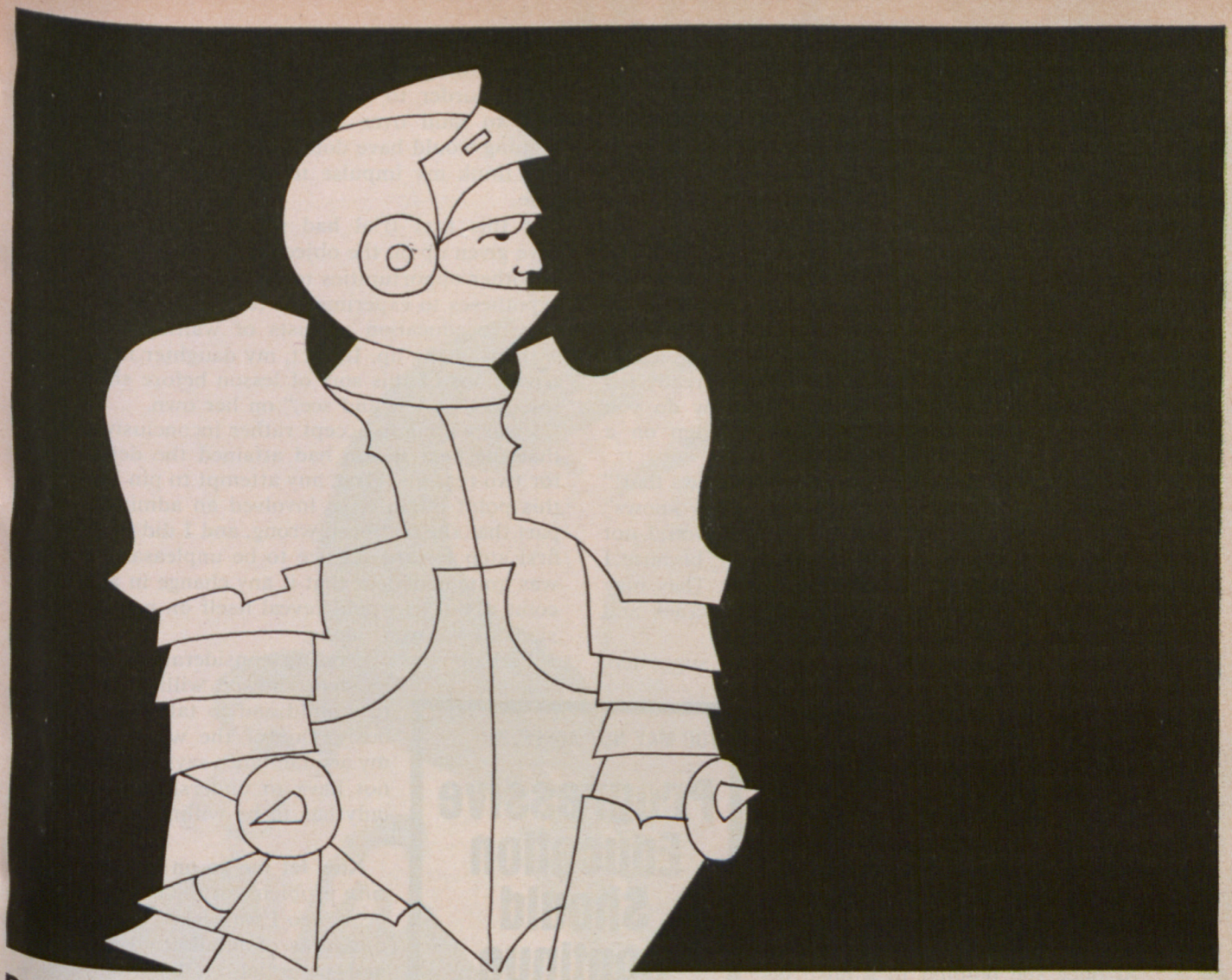

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YOU MAY NOT AGREE, BUT . . .

Progressive Education Should Continue

says **PAUL B. DIEDERICH**

• **Since people who talk about progressive education** have varied notions of what it is or was, I'll start this article with some instances of what I regard as progressive education.

First, as an example of progressive education in early childhood, let me tell you about a day when my daughter and I were walking to her nursery school.

As we started out she said, "Daddy, we mustn't step on the cracks in the sidewalk or a bear will come out and bite us." That seemed a sensible precaution, so we carefully avoided the cracks all the way to school.

Next day she wanted to play the same game again, but, tempted to find out whether she was ready for a mild dose of science, I asked her, "How do you know that a bear will come out if we step on a crack?"

She replied scornfully, "Oh, everybody knows that!"

I wanted to say that the things "everybody knows" are most likely to be false, but since she would not understand, I said, "I just can't believe it, because I haven't seen any bears around here lately. They may have all gone north. Couldn't we step on a crack and find out?"

Since she seemed alarmed at that idea, I suggested, "You go and hide behind that tree where the bear can't see you and let me step on a crack. I'm big; I'm not afraid of bears. Besides, I can run faster than they can."

At first she thought this would be too dangerous but finally consented. When I could see her little face peeping out from behind the tree, I shouted, "Come out, bear!" and boldly stepped on a crack.

At once she pointed to a bush behind me and said, "See, Daddy, there's the bear!"

Some parental instinct prompted me to say, "Let's run!" Since her legs were rather short, I scooped her up and ran all the way to school. Once inside the gate, we turned and shouted insults back at the bear.

I thought the imagination of childhood had defeated the methods of science, but this judgment turned out to be premature. Next morning she said to me, "Today, Daddy, you hide behind the tree and let me step on the crack."

Well! I could not tell without further evidence whether she had really caught the spirit of "Let's try it and see" or whether this was just another part of the game of make-believe. But at least she was not afraid to put herself in the position of danger, and her belief in the reality of the bear had perceptibly diminished.

I regard this as an instance of progressive education because I approached an objective through the natural concerns and activities of a very young child. I was willing to accept apparent defeat on the first trial in order to save face for her and to give her time to mull over the results of this experiment. Arguing would have done no good at this point, and I still think my impulse to pick her up and run was wise.

If this first trial had really failed, I would not have given up on the objective but would have waited for other opportunities to get my child to submit her hypotheses to experimental tests. A large part of progressive education consists of waiting—but waiting without giving up. In fact, my daughter needed many repetitions of this sort of lesson before she began to say, "Let's try it and see," on her own.

I was willing to accept rather inconclusive evidence that the bear lesson had attained the desired result for two reasons. First, any attempt to pin her down at this point might have involved an admission on her part that she had been wrong, and I did not want this first step toward science to be unpleasant. Second, I was quite confident that if any change in attitude had come about, it would reveal itself on numerous occasions as we went along.

Perhaps the overriding consideration is that this incident showed willingness to listen to a child and to take her ideas seriously. One of the wisest teachers of my acquaintance says, "A teacher does not have to understand children. He only has to be willing to."

Now let me go on to the more ... ture problems of the first grade. A few years ago I was asked to help develop measures of intellectual development and potential in disadvantaged first graders in New York City schools. The group intelligence tests previously used had given obviously false readings. As many as 70 percent of the chilren in some schools scored at the feeble-minded level, but the things these children could do showed that they were anything but feeble-minded.

I soon guessed several reasons for their low scores. They were afraid of tests; they were upset by time limits; they hated answering questions—especially those in official-looking documents; they had the life-saving art of switching off their attention so that they never fully understood the directions. Above all, when they came to a question that they could not answer they did not skip it and go on to the one that they could answer but sat there and sulked the rest of the period.

Early intelligence testers tried to avoid using tasks children learn in school, believing that some children are handicapped by poor instruction. They used unfamiliar tasks, such as making a string of beads exactly like a model string or finding a path through a maze. This procedure is all right for secure children, but insecure children freeze up when they are asked to do something they have never done or even seen. For this reason I decided to use tasks involving familiar words, numbers, and pictures and to disregard the effects of poor instruction, which, after all,

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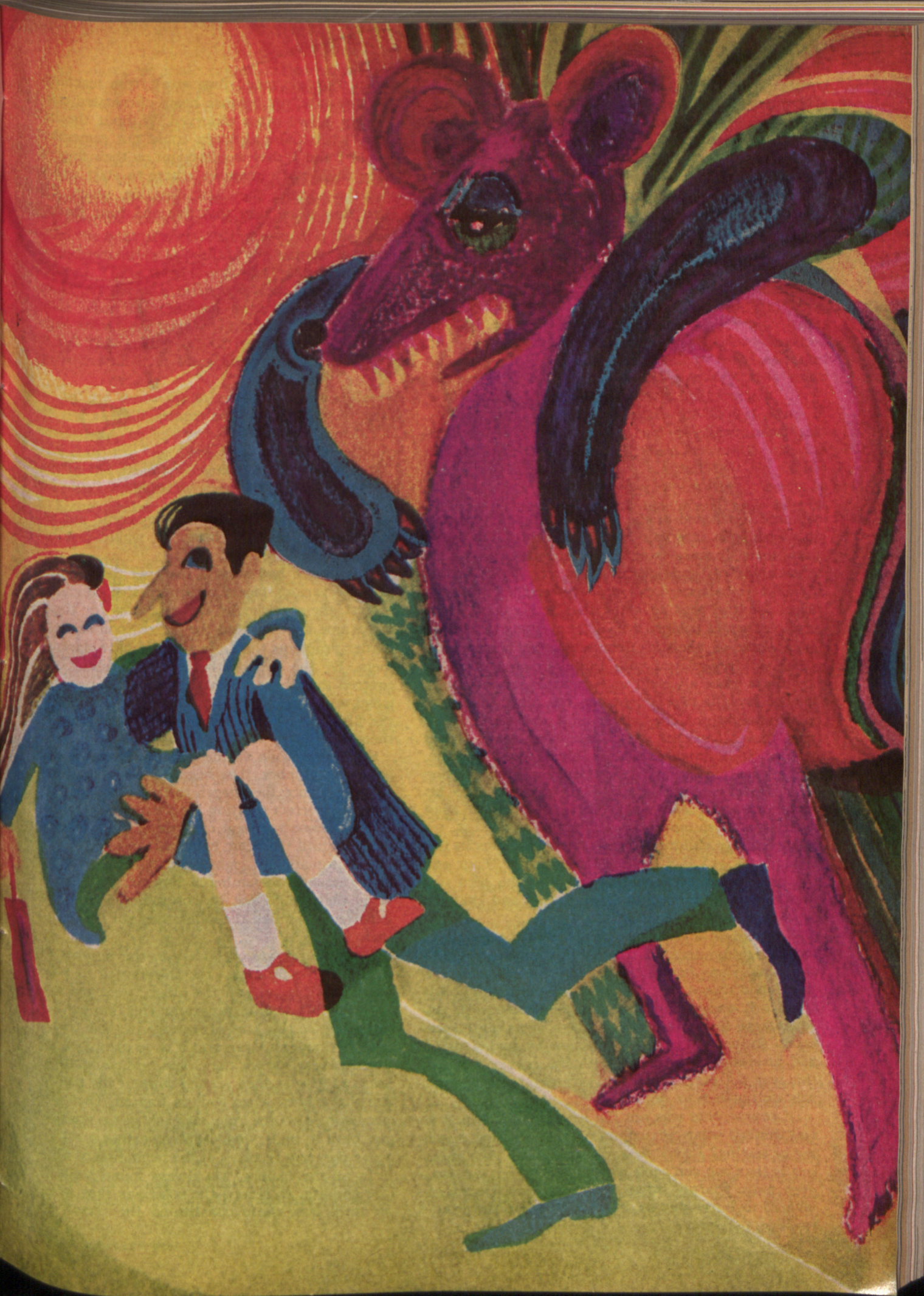
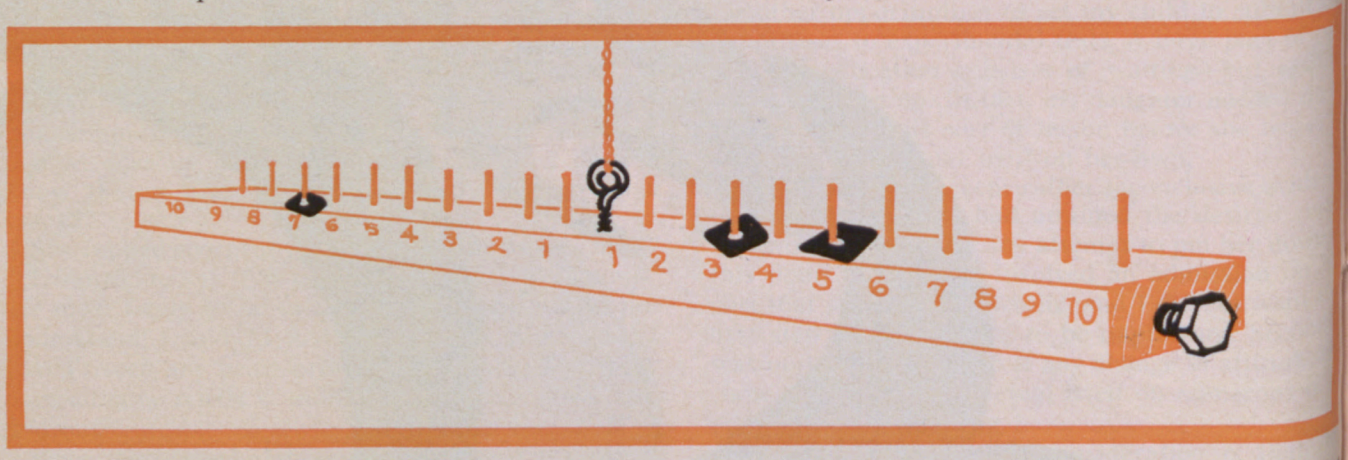
Dr. Diederich is senior research associate, Center for Psychological Studies, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. He discussed this subject at greater length in an address delivered in December 1968 at the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago.

The editors invite reader reaction to Dr. Diederich's statement (address "Zip Code 20036") and manuscripts on other topics suitable for publication in this continuing feature (address Department ag).



constitute a real handicap to further learning. I attempted to avoid invidious comparisons by developing norms or standards of performance only within individual schools.

For one typical test I devised a sort of scale, a "balance beam." It was a stick two feet long with a screw-eye in the middle. This was hung from a hook at the top of a small stand so that the stick



balanced. Each end of the stick had 10 pegs sticking up at one-inch intervals, numbered from 1 to 10 to show their distance from the fulcrum. A heavy bolt at each end of the stick could be screwed in or out to make it balance. Lead drapery weights could be placed on the pegs to show that a 3 and a 6, for example, would balance a 9; if the weights were even one position off, the stick definitely would not balance.

The children played with this scale in pairs. One boy might place a weight on 9 and ask his partner to balance it with two weights on the other side. The partner might put one weight on 4 and—after a few false moves—another on 5, and the beam would balance. If he made it within three moves, he won, which gave him the privilege of copying that solution on a slip of paper that was later dropped into his "mailbox" as a record of his successes. If he did not make it in three moves, the other player tried it.

I taught the children to copy their solutions in this fashion: "4 + 5 = 9," which they read as "Four and five balance nine." I taught them that the plus sign was just a handy way to write "and," and that the equal sign meant "balance."

At this point I ran into trouble with the people of the curriculum division, who said I must not use plus and equal signs before the second grade because research had shown that children of this age and ability could not understand them. I said I had seen disadvantaged first graders using these signs quite accurately and cut short the discussion by saying that I had no desire to interfere with the curriculum, but this was not curriculum; it was measurement, and I was authorized to do something about that.

Of course, that was not the whole truth. Which do you think it was: curriculum or measurement, teaching or testing? In my view, one mark of a good measure is that you can't tell which it is. To put the issue even more sharply, what would you say if someone wanted to throw out the balance beam on the ground that it took too much time away from teaching?

At any rate, my balance beam eliminated one kind of error I had often observed. Without the balance beam, when these children could not remember the sum of 5 and 4, they would count on their fingers; but many could not remember where to start and began with the number they saw: five, six, seven, EIGHT. Then they were sure that five and four made eight because they had counted it. They could not get that result on the balance beam; it would not balance.

This device had several features that seem to me to show various facets of progressive education.

First, the children set the problems for themselves or for one another, and they were soon setting much harder problems than any I would have dared to give them. By the end of the year, one child even discovered that three weights on the third peg plus four weights on the fourth will balance five weights on the fifth—which leads straight into the Pythagorean theorem.

Second, as soon as the children found one way to balance a number, they began to look for other ways to do it. Hence they began to think in terms of more than one correct solution for some kinds of problems.

Third, everybody got everything right because they kept on until the beam balanced, and then the answer was automatically right. The numbers they copied and gradually remembered represented correct solutions that would not be contradicted in subsequent experience—unlike the sums they got by counting on their fingers.

The children varied widely in the number and difficulty of the problems they attempted to solve with the balance beam and the other "toys and games" used in this testing program. This implies a fourth advantage to this kind of testing: In their free activity periods these children had a wide choice of "games," could play whenever they liked, and could stick to any game as long as they wished without the panicky feeling that comes when time is limited. They could get accustomed to the rules of each game gradually and not have to understand and remember a set of directions they had received at the beginning of the period.

In all the "games" we always found some way for the children to record the solutions they found, and in their eyes these constituted the record of their

successes—never of their failures. They always deposited the slips recording their solutions in their "mailboxes" with a feeling of triumph, never realizing that I was an old meany who would look into the boxes from time to time, count their slips, and record them under various headings.

The number of points a child accumulated over a period of several months was, of course, far more reliable than the scores on a conventional test, and it indicated the bent of a child's interests and the depth of his understanding as well as the number of problems solved. These were scores—as solid as anything one could get out of a Binet test—but scores on performance when the children were doing their best, not when they were frightened or confused or sullen or hostile. This is the sort of testing that I hope to see vastly extended in the schools of the future.

Now let me move up to grade 4 and a different sort of test that illustrates another facet of progressive education. The test was devised by a member of the ETS staff, the late Dora Damrin. She became interested in the group problem-solving processes that she had observed in elementary schools in grades 3, 4, and 5. Some teachers, she noticed, had the knack of fostering these processes, and their students became very good at them, almost without regard to their scholastic ability; while other teachers provided no practice in these skills, and their students were correspondingly inept, even when they were bright individually. Since it seemed important for eight- to ten-year-olds to acquire some skill in solving problems together, Miss Damrin decided to develop a test that would enable teachers to determine the degree of skill of this sort that they had developed in their classes. She devised a series of problems that immediately caught the imagination of every group that attempted them.

I shall describe one problem that fairly represents the whole series. Miss Damrin bought two pegboards about two feet square, with holes about an inch apart over the whole surface, and two sets of about 100 pegs in five different shapes and colors. On one pegboard she created a lovely flower design, which she cemented in place so that she could carry it with her from school to school.

When she visited a class, she propped up this design in a chalk tray at the front of the room. Then she moved a small table in front of it and laid the blank pegboard on it flat. Next, she gave each child three or four pegs. Then she said:

"Today we are going to have a test. In your regular tests, you each have to work alone, but you can't possibly do this test alone, because nobody has enough pegs. The problem in this test is to copy the design in the chalk tray on the blank pegboard, and you will have to use everybody's pegs to do that. You need to figure out some way to work together on the blank pegboard in order to copy this design in as short a time as possible. I don't care how you do it, and I am not going to offer one single suggestion. You may have all the time you like to talk it over, but when you say you are ready, I'll say 'Go!' and keep track of the time to see how many minutes it takes you to finish. I'll also take off one point for each peg that is not in the right place. Any questions?"

The questions were usually designed to extract some idea of how to do the job, but Miss Damrin refused to give any kind of hint. ("Sure, if that's the way you want to do it." "That's the sort of thing you have to decide." "Whatever you think is best.")

Realizing that no suggestions would be forthcoming, the group would usually settle down to making suggestions of its own and debating their merits. Some groups were fertile in suggestions, others barren; some relaxed, others apprehensive; some contentious, others apathetic; some vigorous, excited, and hopeful, others sunk in dull despair as they realized that they were being asked to do a job without being told how to do it—which seemed unfair to them. As might be expected for groups of this age, few took more than five to ten minutes in their planning.

The group that represented the lowest level of response was the one that made a desperate attempt to get Miss Damrin to tell them how to do the job and grew angry when they realized that she would not. After a period of silence in which everyone scowled at everyone else, a few made feeble suggestions that the others rejected.

After another long period of silence Miss Damrin asked, "Are you ready?"

"Guess so—as ready as we're likely to be."

"All right, go!"

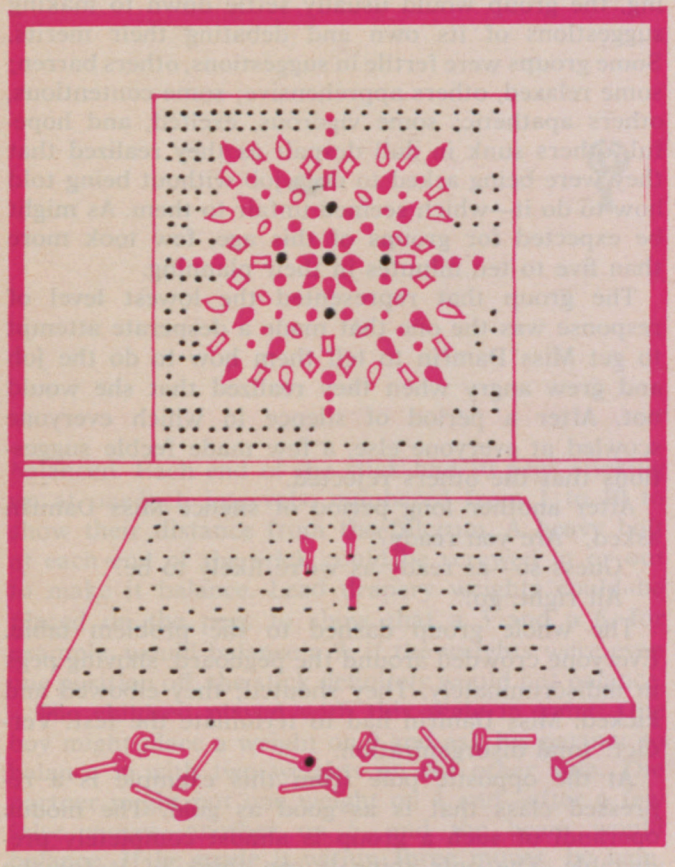
The whole group dashed to the problem table. Everyone crowded around the pegboard, shoving pegs in indiscriminately. They shouted; they elbowed and kicked. Miss Damrin had to terminate the test. Verdict: total disorganization.

At the opposite pole from this example is a repressed class that is as good as gold. The modus operandi of such a group is almost completely predictable. The only thing it can think of is for the first child at the right to go up, look over the design, put in his pieces, go back to his seat, sit up straight, and watch the next victim without making a sound. Then the next child runs up and does the same; then the next and the next, and so on around the room. Nobody is disorderly or inattentive, many show a good deal of interest, and there are few mistakes. The only trouble is that it takes a group like this about ten times as long to complete the design as a class that is able to cooperate. Verdict: complete individualism; no group problem solving at all.

Then there is the class with no real leader but with an aggressive girl who tries to boss the whole show. At the beginning she takes up a strategic position in front of the problem table and shouts, "Give your pieces to me! We can't all do it. Give them to me, and I'll put them in where they belong." It usually takes the group not more than three minutes to throw her out, but then the group falls apart because it has no real leader to take over.

I could describe many other patterns of response, but let us go on to the children whose teacher has taught them to work together. Their initial discussion may be summarized as follows:

"We usually do things by tables. Let's have each table do one color. Hand all the reds to table 1, greens to table 2, and so on. Pick a leader for each table who will put in all the pieces of one color before we go on to the next color. Dave, you be the boss and call out orders: which group starts, which goes next, and so on. Jane, you be troubleshooter. When anything goes wrong, say 'Stop!' and either fix it yourself or get



someone else to fix it. You have the right of way over everyone else."

This sort of group usually finishes the design in four or five minutes with no mistakes. It enjoys solving the problem, but it also shows organization and discipline, for whatever rules it makes are strictly observed. Verdict: a group that can manage its own affairs as efficiently as most adults.

One variant of this cooperative pattern is what I call the slaphappy group, taught by an overpermissive teacher. It gets the job done not only cooperatively but happily, with a great deal of chaffing and joking, but it is unexpectedly slow; it makes a lot of mistakes; and about halfway through the operation almost all lose interest and begin doing something else—reading comic books, playing tick-tack-toe, even chasing one another around the room. At the end, just one small group remains at the problem table trying to finish the design amid rising waves of bedlam while a leader tries frantically to keep order. Verdict: cooperative, relaxed, happy, but needs a bit of discipline.

The performance of each class provided a mirror in which its teacher could see himself. Some teachers sat there beaming; others were so embarrassed that they wanted to sink through the floor. Each teacher was permitted to observe one other class during this test. At the end, the staff met to discuss the various patterns of response, without mentioning any names. The teachers agreed that this test showed what it means to learn to solve problems together. In fact, even a single use of this test resulted in a change in curriculum. No matter what these classes studied thereafter, they learned something about how to cooperate in solving problems.

This procedure furnishes a timely reminder of one aspect of progressive education that the present round of experiments in our schools seems to neglect. One might conclude from current discussions that the ideal education situation would be to put a child in orbit for three or four years with all necessities of life and computerized instruction, and he would come back a genius. My own view is that he would come back an idiot—not only because of the isolation and the lack of social learning but also because of the absence of group stimulation, rivalry, and momentum.

I am not enthusiastic about current efforts to set each child free to go as fast or as slow as he can. In my experience, if you set the average student completely free to go as fast as he likes in a field in which he has only average interest, the result is likely to be no motion whatever. I have taught in ways that set each individual free to move ahead as fast as he liked, but I have not been impressed by the results. A relatively small group of able and interested students may want to push ahead in one or two fields, but even these are likely to want to stick with their group in other subjects.

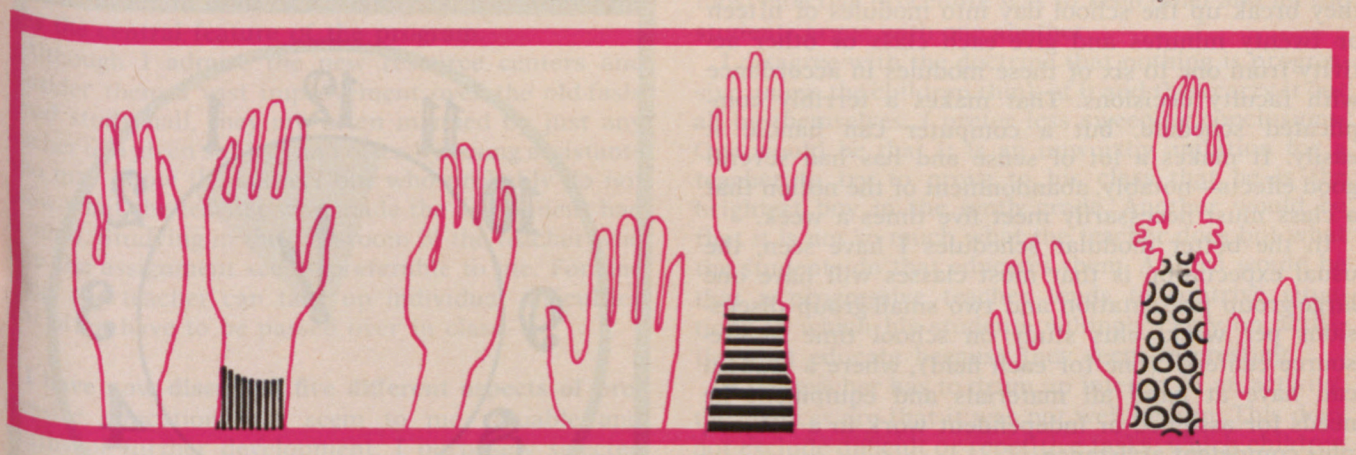
I believe that in the hands of a good teacher, group learning bears the same relation to individual learning that a symphony concert bears to a solo performance. Each is good in its way, but I beg our innovators to remember that a symphony has its place.

To illustrate how certain aspects of progressive education can be combined with even a strictly regimented program, let me discuss a remedial English course that I taught at the University of Chicago. Most of my students were in grades 11 or 12. As remedial material, we used a series of objective tests for reading and writing that a colleague and I had prepared for the United States Armed Forces Institute.

Each of these tests was built around a single topic. Students took them home and came to class with their answers already marked. Although they could answer 50 multiple-choice questions in the time ordinarily devoted to homework, time in class limited discussion to about 10 questions, so our first problem was to select the 10 that most needed discussion. Our procedure was to ask, "What did you do with Item 1?" and each student held up one, two, three, or four fingers to indicate which answer he had chosen. If nearly all students chose answer 3 and that was correct, we would say "Yes, 3" and go on unless someone wanted to argue about it. But if one faction wanted answer 2 and another wanted 4, we might say, "Mary, why did you choose 2?" "Jim, why did you choose 4?" "Does anyone else have a different reason?"

By this time, hands would be waving all over the

room, and all we had to do was to recognize students who wanted to speak, and occasionally to ask a question in order to clarify what a student was trying to say. As soon as the arguments began to repeat themselves, we would say, "That's enough. We now have heard all the reasons we need to decide which answer is better. How many now want 2? How many want 4? The 4's have it. If you still want to argue, take up your point after class with someone who chose 4."



The reason I regard this class as an instance of progressive education is that it relied almost exclusively on students' arguments with one another as a means of improvement. We did this not as a matter of principle but because it worked. Whenever we lost patience and simply told a class which answer was correct and why, they promptly forgot it and never referred to it again. But if they argued with one another until they were convinced that one faction was right, they would refer to that case as a precedent in subsequent discussions.

It is well known from numerous observational studies that nearly all teachers talk at least 50 percent of the time they spend with a class; many of them, as much as 80 or 90 percent of the time. Arguments by students with one another are relatively rare. But if our experience is any criterion, the student arguments on clearly defined issues are what really produce change, while most of what the teacher says goes in one ear and out the other.

Now let me compare certain features of this remedial program with current efforts to individualize instruction. The 1969 innovator would want to put our exercises into some kind of self-instructional program, preferably moderated by a computer, a teaching machine, or a printed program that conceals answers until the student has chosen the answer he regards as correct.

Suppose a student tries the first problem and picks answer 2. The simplest type of program says, in effect, "No, 3." A somewhat more expensive model says "No, try again." If he picks 4 on his second try, it says no again, so finally he is driven to 3, but without knowing why it is supposed to be correct or why the other answers were wrong. To overcome this difficulty, the most expensive type of program says to the first choice, "No, turn to page 68." Page 68 explains why this answer was wrong, but it may or may not get at the reasons that led the student to choose it. Then it tells him to go back to page 1 and try again. Eventually he hits the intended answer and is told to turn to page 26 for the next problem.

I hope I have not caricatured this process because I have devised self-instructional programs myself for drill on material, such as vocabulary, in which reasoning is not very important. When learning involves reasoning, however, as in problems of interpretation and expression, the reasons behind a student's answer should have a chance to come out and confront the reasons behind the answers of other students who disagree. I can see no way for this to happen in a self-instructional program of less than infinite length, but it is easy in class.

The 1969 innovators are quite reasonable people and are likely to go along with this, but with two reservations.

First, they will say that a delay of even a second in finding out whether an answer is right or wrong impedes learning. How do they know? Well, from experiments with pigeons. Perhaps these pigeons were smarter than my remedial students, but these students showed no ill effects from choosing their answers one day and finding out whether their classmates agreed or disagreed the next day. I believe that this is a matter of expectation. If a higher organism has learned to expect its reinforcement or opposition tomorrow, then tomorrow is soon enough.

The innovators' other reservation will be that the class procedure keeps the lockstep intact. It is true that if students are to have a common body of recent experience to argue about, brilliant students cannot go as fast as they like and slow learners cannot take all the time they need. My class provided for some flexibility, however. My faster students finished each exercise in about half an hour; the slower ones took as much as two hours, but both groups enjoyed and profited by the discussion.

I doubt that any student who had taken part in these discussions would jump at the chance to finish this course in a single weekend on a teaching machine. The only reason for getting through in a hurry would be to have the chance to pursue other interests, and he could do that while devoting a reasonable amount of time to my course. He certainly

would not gain any time by jumping to Humanities 2 without sufficient preparation.

It may be that the present demand for self-instructional programs and current enthusiasm for modular or computerized schedules are connected. Principals have been asking why all classes should meet for the same length of time. Finding no good reason, they break up the school day into modules of fifteen or twenty minutes and give each class or other activity from one to six of these modules in accordance with faculty decisions. That makes a terribly complicated schedule, but a computer can handle it easily. It makes a lot of sense and has had several good effects—notably, abandonment of the notion that a class must necessarily meet five times a week.

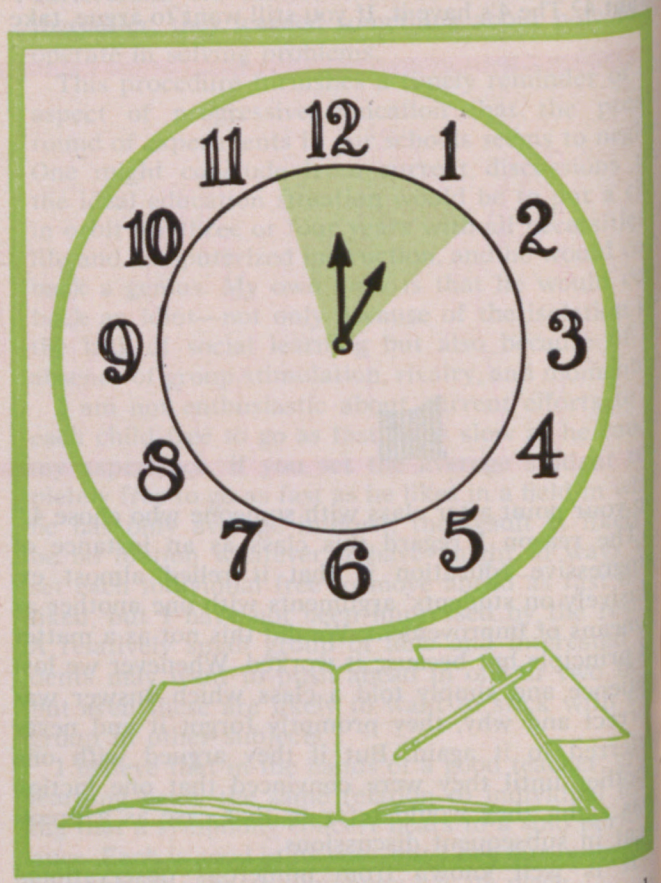
In the better modular schedules I have seen, the usual expectation is that most classes will have one large-group presentation and two small-group discussions per week, plus study on school time in "resource centers" (one for each field), where a student can have at hand all materials and equipment he needs for assigned or independent work in a subject, plus competent assistance.

The only hitch is that the modular schedule results in a large amount of unscheduled time, ranging from 40 to 60 percent at various ages, which is broken into little bits and pieces throughout the week, so that some students may have more free time than they can manage on Monday but none at all on Tuesday or Wednesday. To keep students from wandering through the halls and getting into mischief during their free time, some principals buy every self-instructional program they can get.

Now for another example of progressive education: During the thirties, Helen Parkhurst of the Dalton Schools in New York became so convinced of the futility of most class sessions that she restricted every subject for a time to one class meeting per week and later to two class meetings. That left a large block of time in the middle of the school day—from 11:30 to 1:30, as I remember it—when no classes met but all teachers were in their rooms to help students with their homework. The Dalton girls finished almost all their assigned work in school and were somewhat embarrassed if they had some left over to finish at home. It was a sign that they had been dawdling when they should have been working.

At first, while these girls were learning to make good use of this study time, they were scheduled to spend a certain amount of it on each of their courses. Once this stage was over, students were allowed to go from one room to another on their own initiative. As they left a room, the teacher would initial the part of the assigned work that they had completed and make a note of it in his record book. If this record revealed that some girls were falling behind, the teacher would make definite appointments for them to come to his room and work under close supervision until they were out of danger. This was the only disciplinary procedure necessary to insure that this study period was well used.

The girls soon found that it was to their advantage to do the assigned work in the room of the teacher who assigned it, because all the necessary materials and reference works were there, as well as the teacher who knew what they were supposed to do. When they left school, most of them were through for the day. They might take home a book to read or a paper to



finish, but nothing like the staggering load of schoolbooks with which most students leave our public schools.

One day I cornered a group of these girls and asked them, "What would you think if the school decided to have five class meetings a week in every subject?" Their expressions made it clear that they had never heard such an outlandish idea in all their lives.

One asked me, "Are you kidding?"

I said, "No, many schools have such a schedule."

"When would we get our work done?"

I said they would have to do it at home in the evening.

"Why, that would take me until midnight!"

"Yes," I said, "that's what it takes my children."

Everyone gasped "How cruel!" and another girl asked, "Who helps them?"

I said that if anyone did, it was their parents.

"But are they qualified?"

"No," I said, "but they have to do it anyway."

"Why, the results must be ghastly!" She was right.

It is worth remembering that Dalton was one of the few progressive schools in the Eight Year Study whose graduates made better grades in college than the matched students from traditional schools with whom they were compared. Students from the other schools did as well as their comparison groups, but the Dalton

girls did better. The fact that they were accustomed to something like a college schedule may have helped.

This 1935 Dalton solution to the problem of study on school time seems somewhat better to me than the modular schedule solution. It put all of this study time into one broad band in the middle of the day rather than breaking it up into random bits and pieces scattered throughout the week with no regard to the rhythm, order, or unity of a school day. The study time was the central feature of the program.

Although I admire the new resource centers and consider them a vast improvement over the old-fashioned study hall, they are often manned by just any teacher of a given subject and often by young assistants who may know the subject but who probably do not know what the teacher who made the assignment had in mind. Studying in the classroom of the teacher who gave the assignment seems preferable to me. For one thing, the teacher can take up individual difficulties that often have to be passed over in class.

I have now discussed five different aspects of progressive education that seem to me valuable and worthy of further development. I purposely selected examples in which I was either the parent, the teacher, or a firsthand observer, because when a person airs his views on progressive education, it's important to ask, "Have you ever done it yourself? Have you ever seen it done?"

All of my examples dealt with student behavior that was not exceptional in any way. It was only the treatment that I regarded as progressive. What are some of the salient features of this treatment?

First, all the examples showed an ability and willingness to enter imaginatively into the world of children, to see things from their point of view, and then to suggest things to do that they would regard as sensible and interesting and that always had an educational purpose—an objective. I hope that rather than being heavy-handed, the educational purpose was just a nudge in the direction of learning something that they would come to value.

Second, the teachers in the examples were not hesitant about setting a task, inventing a game, devising a procedure, or even designing a schedule that the students did not and probably could not originate. Some progressive teachers talk as though nothing in education can be progressive unless it "comes from the students." Getting students into the act is indeed important but not necessarily at the point of devising things to do. Students are the ones who play the game but not necessarily the ones who invent it.

Third, the teacher's role was limited to setting the stage, providing the necessary material, equipment, or time, and then acting for the most part as observer or referee. In the Dalton study period, the teacher also acted as an occasional helper, usually upon request. I would not assert that a progressive teacher never plays a more active role in learning, but in the activities that are most easily recognized as progressive, you will probably agree that the teacher is not very conspicuous.

When the disadvantaged first graders were playing with my "toys and games," for example, the teacher was not even looking at them. He was on the other side of the room trying to teach something to a group of eight or ten pupils. Dora Damrin would not give any hint of how to go about her pegboard problem, and after a class had decided how to tackle the problem, she said nothing and would not lift a finger to interfere unless they actually came to blows. In my remedial English course, every teacher soon learned that the most effective procedure was to keep quiet and let the students argue with one another.

I disagree with the doctrine that nothing is progressive unless the children think of it and then carry it out all by themselves. I prefer less sweeping conclusions. One would be that it is an unworthy ambition for a teacher to try to prove to his class that he is the brightest boy in the tenth grade. Another would be that it is not so much what the teacher does but what the students do that educates them. A third would be that a progressive teacher tends to contrive situations in which his students willingly carry on activities that educate because they seem interesting.

If the teacher has to drum up interest in an activity, the chances are that it was not well chosen. This does not exclude difficult or repetitive tasks, which children do willingly enough when they can see any point in them, but we must try to set up these tasks in a way that appeals to them. For example, the disadvantaged first graders spent a great deal of time with the balance beam, but I doubt that they would spend an equal amount of time memorizing tables of sums. Of course, time after time, even the best of us fail to think of an appealing way to approach some objective, and then the class simply has to like us and trust us enough to go along. A course cannot consist just of high points.

Critics have often charged that with progressive methods students do not learn anything, or at least not as much of the usual school subjects as do students taught by traditional methods. I can think of three reasons for this charge, which, by the way, is refuted by an enormous body of evidence.

First, many weak teachers who were having trouble with discipline in traditional schools excused their shortcomings on the ground that they were practicing "progressive education." Second, a few progressive schools during the thirties became infected with an early and incomplete version of Freudian theory and applied it to the education of normal children in a way that no psychiatrist would condone. Third, when the shortcomings of the average public school graduate became the subject of national concern after the Russians put Sputnik in orbit, people blamed it all on "progressive education," forgetting that this movement had never reached more than about 1 percent of our high schools. Progressive education was only a convenient scapegoat.

The Sputnik-inspired demands for superior education did not toll the death knell for progressive education. When my little daughter stepped on a crack to see whether a bear would come out, she was performing a far more scientific experiment than many carried out in traditional high schools. As long as there are teachers who are willing to understand children, progressive education will continue. •

A noted critic's lively appraisal of

Today's Movies

THE SEARCHING MIND

RICHARD L. COE, *syndicated movie critic, Washington Post-Los Angeles Times News Service.*

• **Thirty years ago, Aldous** Huxley's *Brave New World* referred to "The Feelies." Today the most accented term for a film is that it is a felt experience—as the ads boast, "It hits the guts."

The and-then-and-then-and-then story line often seems to have dwindled to a single, chancy happenstance. Sexual frankness is taken for granted. If heroes have become antiheroes, the worst villain is hypocrisy. The events in a film no longer are a singular drive but a pluralistic whammy. The film that presumes to give answers is for hooting. The most aware films ask questions.

Such developments are understandable and often commendable. Since film is the mirror of the life around it—a mirror that sometimes adds its own qualities to the universal kaleidoscope—one must consider the wider image while watching the reflection.

Now we have a generation literally brought up on film. By watching television, children under two have learned to deal with the symbols that make up our words not as letters in an alphabet but as the words, entire meanings, themselves. Given these symbols, they can mouth the meaning. They have learned to read in a wholly untraditional way.

Young people today have accustomed themselves to splintered action. They study while the TV set is blasting. They are attuned to film, action, and noise as no other generation has been.

The medium and the medium's message have created an entirely new breed.

Take the messages. They begin in cartoon form, souped up with Pow-Wow-Wows and muscle, flowing into Westerns and crime sagas in which violence determines mastery and the end justifies the means. The rest of the TV course is soggy domestic drama, farce, or "highlights" of a day's far-flung news—minute-long slices that are relatively meaningless without the perspective of background.

The sponsors' "messages" suggest that soap and toothpaste will lead to glamorous fulfillment; their subliminal message is sex. Because soap and toothpaste do not change a thing and pompous pronouncements are disproved within weeks, words have lost their meanings. What is learned in those formative years at home is not merely passivity but gnawing distrust and eventual cynicism.

Young people of this new breed are demanding further extensions of their film experiences; film makers, aware that there is money to be made from this generation (half of the nation's filmgoers are under 25), are meeting their demands. The awareness isn't restricted to America. Films now aim for global audiences. *Dr. Zhivago,* an Englishman's adaptation of a Russian novel, filmed in Spain and Finland with American money, and acted by American, English, African, and European stars, sets box-office records in Tokyo.

Today's films are largely about the young themselves and about that generation's eternally repeated belief that they cannot communicate with their parents. This is what *The Graduate* states. When Benjamin accepts Mrs. Robinson's invitation to bed, young viewers judge his action not on moral grounds, but on the pragmatic one of youth's getting a life experience, satisfying his curiosity, at last escaping from his foredoomed passivity. Benjamin's formal prodding of questions to his older partner during their intimacy puts into words a conclusion that young people in the audience have already drawn from the preceding scenes. Benjamin feels that his elders see him as an object, by scientific chance their property, and his subconscious vengeance is to use Mrs. Robinson as an object.

Zeffirelli's youth-addressed *Romeo and Juliet,* the most youthful version of the classic ever achieved, sounds a fascinating echo of this. The film's Lady Capulet is young, as Shakespeare meant her to be ("I was your mother much upon these years/That you are now a maid," Shakespeare has her tell Juliet) and when, at the ball, she unveils more than a kinswoman's interest in Paris, the observant young in the audience appreciate the peripheral relationship. Youth communicates with youth, but youth and age simply do not know each other. No reaction in the film is angrier or more passionate than the response of Juliet to her old father's demand that she be married on Thursday next.

Bonnie and Clyde shocked many with its scenes that combine blood and laughter, and yet the young saw it as a morality play. It was vital to this viewpoint that both characters were youthfully attractive and that the humor was both racy and corny. But the outstanding characteristic of all the central figures was the same: All were strikingly unintelligent. One could relate to them through their looks or their macabre humor; their sin was their stupidity, which resulted in so little money and so much blood. Thus this was a profoundly moral film in that ignorance is immoral; from ignorance came the waste of potentials.

Films with similar viewpoints have come from

England: *The Loneliness of the Long Distance Runner, The Leather Boys,* and *The L-Shaped Room,* for example, or *Morgan!* which showed the daydreams of a lad brought up on Tarzan films. However real Tarzan seemed, his derring-do was impossible for Morgan, and this was enough to set him crazy. Some in the audience laughed, but the sensitive young shuddered at this head-on crash between fantasy and reality. Films like this became a testing ground on which the young judged their dates. If contact wasn't made, drop that date and find one who'd get it.

With heady momentum, films from the Old World—based on a war-taught nihilism that is diametrically opposed to the naturally buoyant American strains—have moved beyond the few art houses that showed them first; drive-ins show them now. Fellini, especially in *La Dolce Vita* and *8½,* looked at life bitterly but still with brooding, anguished poetry. Antonioni, from *L'Avventura* to *Blow-Up,* struck response from the young by expressing the aimlessness of affluent worlds. Sweden's Ingmar Bergman has ruminated

darkly from medieval legends to present realities, his range getting more and more narrow as he probes deeper and deeper. His loneliness becomes everyone's loneliness. Godard's *Breathless,* reflecting American film through the eyes of the young French, began a "new wave" that has ebbed and flowed in the nine years since.

Resnais, taking sex as his action, discussed morality and the bomb in *Hiroshima, Mon Amour* and touched on the element of time in *Last Year at Marienbad.* The latter film—best understood as a questioning comedy—leads us into one of the more striking if less obvious ramifications of today's films: They consider time in an almost Einsteinian sense.

To the consternation of their elders, the young accept time presented by films in the splintered fashion they became accustomed to in their TV-oriented childhood. They have no problem with films involving several concurrent visions of time: scenes occurring simultaneously, past events commenting on the present, future events showing the results of past or present action. This use of time, not as a structured immobility but as fluid relativity, is today's cinematic shorthand, film's particular contribution to the revolutions around us.

Superficial examples are in such split-screen films as *Charly, The Boston Strangler,* and *The Thomas Crown Affair.* While we watch Charly's teacher reacting to patterns previously described by him, we see the teacher, at the same time, in the earlier sequence. *The Boston Strangler* makes use of the John F. Kennedy funeral rites, seen on TV, to place the strangler (and more especially, us) in a particular place at a particular time. Subtly, this adds a built-in emotional shock. In *The Thomas Crown Affair,* through a polo match in one panel that the woman who is to be Crown's adversary observes in another, we learn details the director will not have to show us again. This awareness of time and its eerie, contrasting irrelevancies are an endless source of interest in today's films.

These screen panels seem new and clearly related to those shown at 1964's New York World's Fair and Montreal's Expo 67. The works unveiled those two summers, especially *The Searching Eye* in New York and *A Place To Stand* and *Labyrinth* in Montreal, were indeed visions of the new film, absorbing on several levels of the conscious and the subconscious. Anyone who has glimpsed hundreds of the world's great art treasures zipped through the three minutes of "God Is Dog Spelled Backwards" will realize how swiftly the subconscious recognizes and reacts.

In truth, like history's other seeming novelties, these experiences were not new. They were old devices, rediscovered when audiences were ready for them. *Intolerance,* D. W. Griffith's epochal film of 1916, had several telling scenes of split-screen action. So did Murnau's *Sunrise* and Abel Gance's *Napoleon* of the twenties. *The Sin of Madelon Claudet* of 1931 had parallel action and so did the Busby Berkeley musicals that mean the thirties on any night's Late, Late Show. James Wong Howe devised brilliant photographic setups for scenes of parallel action in Wyler's post-World War II report, *The Best Years of Our Lives.*

Realizing that these tricks with time are not really new leads us into further perspectives: Other developments are not so new either. Sex always has been an undercurrent of films; so, as Huxley reflected, has been that dark intimacy of the movie theater in which hundreds or thousands at a time experience vicarious emotions. Nor is it new that the young dominate the filmgoers; they always have.

Thus one may ask: Is the new morality all this new? Is it merely a repetition of man's eternal cycles? Is it not overaccented in today's communication waves—and for profit? Do the rulers of today's media (press and TV, as well as films) realize what they are doing in pushing the "new" for morality's sake? Will a revulsion be inevitable?

Some differences do exist, but surely such questions need clearer focus than they get in our fad-directed culture. In our passion for the new, we mislabel the shoddy. For each of the acclaimed films, there are scores of imitators. For each of the worthy ones exported, each nation makes hundreds that never cross its borders.

Few influences, however, are as prodigious as the invention of the cheap, hand-held movie camera. School children are making their own films, over 600 colleges offer over fifteen hundred film courses, and into the language is creeping a word to twin with literate—cinemate. Belatedly following other nations, we now have the federally sponsored, privately run, jointly financed, nonprofit American Film Institute that reaches schools through bimonthly newsletters, special reports, and regional meetings for teachers. It furthers the study and preservation of old films and the creations of new film makers and seeks to be a link between the amateur viewer and the professional film world.

The vitality of today's films lies in the shift from stating answers to asking questions. This is the telling achievement of *2001: A Space Odyssey,* wherein Stanley Kubrick and his script collaborator, Arthur C. Clarke, pose questions about our postlunar future.

The film itself raises fascinating questions: What happens to the eons of time as the craft speeds through space? Why is the choice of the music—"The Beautiful Blue Danube"—as we zoom through the stars so marvelous a comment on our twentieth century, haunted by the nineteenth and moving into the twenty-first? What do the black blocks mean: Are they the same one each time or different? What does that half-way room, with its Louis Seize furniture, indicate? Does the embryo of the fade-out assert we are to be born again?

Kubrick and Clarke are too wise to affirm answers. They merely are trying to pin down questions. To an angrier, arrogant, money-grubbing degree, lesser films are screaming angry answers, answers reflecting and furthering our present unrest. But, against the perspectives, those are as trivial as they are blatant. Like *2001,* today's better films are too hip to state answers. They are trying to voice the questions. •

Teen-Agers Speak Out About Sex

A SYMPOSIUM OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AND A REACTION BY ELIZABETH KOONTZ

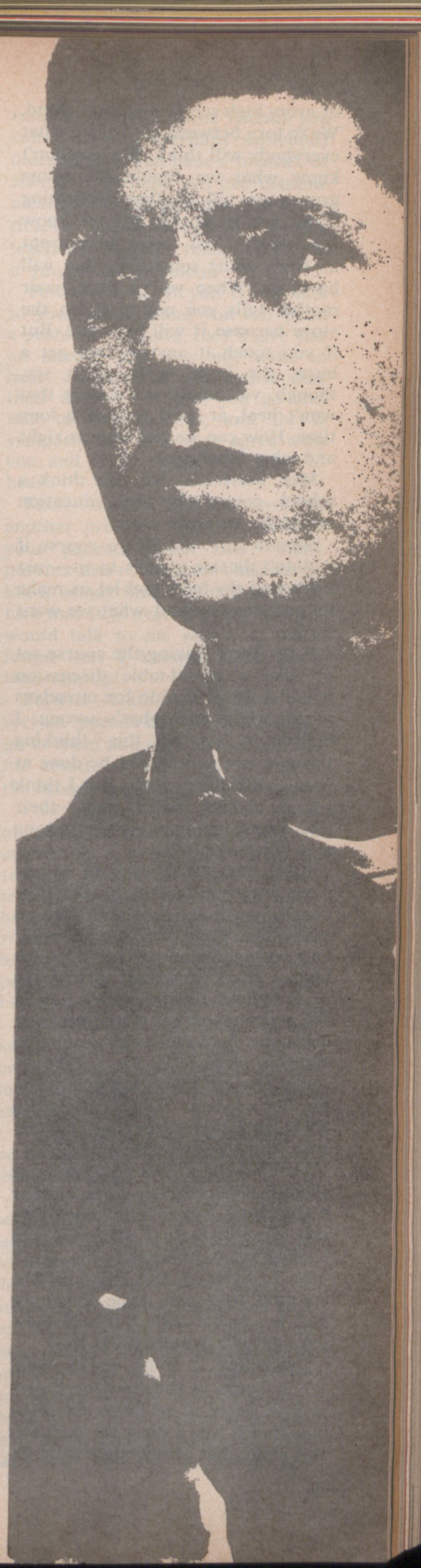
• **This symposium has been adapted** from one portion of a conversation presented before an audience of educators and counselors attending the 1968 Conference of the American Association of Sex Educators and Counselors. The participants were students from several high schools in the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area. Patricia Schiller, who led the discussion, is executive director of AASEC, a national membership organization with headquarters in Washington.

JOURNAL editors are aware that this discussion may be disturbing to some readers. This awareness is reinforced by the knowledge that sex education programs are meeting strong opposition in a number of areas elsewhere in the nation. However, as with previous controversial articles on such topics as student attitudes, hair styles, and dress, the editors decided to print the symposium because of the insight it offers that may help bridge the generation gap.

On the page following the symposium, Elizabeth Koontz, recently appointed director of the Women's Bureau (see February "News and Trends"), gives her reaction to what the young people said. Mrs. Koontz prepared her article while she was still NEA president. She was formerly a North Carolina teacher.

Mrs. Schiller: When you feel attracted to someone, what ways of expressing your affection do you consider appropriate?

FIRST BOY: You've asked a question that occupies about 90 percent



of every high school student's mind. We're torn between desire and what everybody will think. We just don't know what we should do. Some grown-ups tell us that everything about sex is wrong, but we know that they're just trying to prevent us from doing something that will harm us. When you're little, your mother tells you not to touch the stove because it will hurt you. But if you touch it anyway and get a burn, the burn heals. With sex, though, you might get a hurt that won't heal, at least not for a long time. How can we tell what is right and what is wrong?

MRS. SCHILLER: Do you think a school course in sex education would be helpful?

SECOND BOY: I'd like a course if it didn't dictate morals to us—just explained the facts and let us make up our minds about what we want to do.

FIRST BOY: Having the course set up like a round-table discussion would help us decide for ourselves what's right and what's wrong. I believe a lot of this thinking through can and should be done at home, with the parents. But I think young people should make their own decisions about what's wrong and what's right.

FIRST GIRL: I agree with you in part, but I think that by the time people are in senior high they already have their own ideas of right and wrong. When you're in junior high, I think you need to have an adult giving guidelines, bringing in the problems of the whole range of emotions between two people, in addition to physical facts. Like respect. The girl respects the boy and the boy respects the girl if they're going to have a satisfying relationship, one that's worthwhile.

I really think talking about sex should begin earlier than junior high school. I read someplace that you can be factual about sex in elementary school and you don't have to bring in any emotion. The emotion part can come in junior high and senior high. But how many parents will agree with this?

FIRST BOY: I think you're right. When I was in the third or fourth or fifth grade all we knew about sex was that it was a dirty word. It's at this stage that somebody should explain the biological factors, exactly what happens. By the time the kids have grown up into junior high, they are forming their own attitudes, and from tenth to twelfth grades, attitudes are being firmly established. So I think the biological side should be introduced at least by fifth or sixth grade.

THIRD BOY: Explanations should come earlier than fourth grade. I remember a teacher I had in second grade. I think many of my attitudes and values were formed then, because of her. We had great discussions that I can remember as though they'd been yesterday. I think you could start talking about sex on a very elementary level in the lower grades and get basic attitudes and values formed then.

SECOND GIRL: Fifth and sixth grades are really too late to start. Just think back to when you were in fifth and sixth grades and you'll remember—boys not so much—but girls had already begun to develop and were curious as to what was going on in their own bodies.

Actually, when you're very young, sex can be the most natural thing in the world to talk about. Your mother may be pregnant, and you say, "Mommy, why is your stomach all big? What's going to happen?" Your mother could explain it all to you then instead of feeding you some big story—you know, like saying it happens when you're dancing and your navels touch.

THIRD GIRL: Mine said you swallowed a seed.

FOURTH BOY: I thought it just happened or it didn't. And the people who had twenty kids—they were just lucky.

FIFTH BOY: I can't remember being really curious. I don't remember, as a little kid, ever thinking much about it. I just sort of expected babies to just happen.

FOURTH GIRL: Well, I thought that your parents liked each other and they'd kiss each other, and then they'd have a baby.

THIRD BOY: For me, it was always tied into religion somehow. Babies came because of God, and He decided how many kids you'd have. And it was just a case of whether he would write down "four" or "two" or "zero."

MRS. SCHILLER: Do you think if it's done more realistically, bringing in God might be a helpful thing?

THIRD BOY: My more religious friends are the ones who seem to have the very conservative attitude toward sex. And I think that they've been brought up with the idea that God says sex is wrong; no matter how it's done, sex is wrong.

MRS. SCHILLER: Interestingly enough, the religious people I've worked with in the parochial schools emphasize a very positive approach—the wonder of reproduction and the wonder of birth. They don't look on these things as dirty or evil or sinful.

FIRST BOY: When you get down to the physical aspects, that's when sex starts to be bad. As long as you keep it on a high plane, where you're saying, "Sex . . . babies," or "God . . . wonderful," that's fine. But when you start talking about the real thing, it's bad.

SECOND GIRL: You know, many times they teach that sex is a beautiful, wonderful thing, but only between married couples and only in order to have children. And they often leave out the fact that sex can be enjoyable and that you have sex not only to have children but to satisfy needs and desires.

MRS. SCHILLER: What does sex really mean to you? What sort of behavior do you think is appropriate for you?

FIRST GIRL: Well, how do we know? When you see people kissing, some people say, "Oh, look at that!" And you wonder, is it wrong? And you get the idea that you should only kiss in a secluded place. But if you do that, you have more problems. When you get with a boy, and you start kissing him or something, then your sexual urges start and so do the boy's and it's very difficult to stop yourself from having sexual intercourse, or from doing something that will make you lose your self-respect. And then you're afraid of what some people may think. The public looks down on premarital sex.

FIFTH GIRL: I don't like your saying "The public looks down on it." I think that in most cases it's the guilt feelings you have inside. You're not worried because people are going to say "You. You did that." I think it's a feeling you get

from your conscience or from something that's been ingrained in you. At least I don't think everyone who walks down the street is looking at me because I did something. I think you feel the way you do because it's an attitude you've been brought up with or that you've just acquired because of your environment.

FIRST GIRL: I think you can put it this way: When you don't have a fundamental set of values, then all you care about is what your peers are going to think. But when you have a strong, motivating sense of values, then what *you* think is what's important.

FOURTH BOY: How is the public going to know what you're doing unless you tell them? If you don't want your friends to know what your private sex life is like, you don't have to tell them.

FIRST GIRL: I think that people don't frown as much upon sex when it's carried out between people who know each other well. Two people who know each other—not completely, because it's very hard to know someone completely — are comfortable and easy around each other, and sex is a natural part of the relationship because they're fond of each other. Sex is a way of showing affection.

FOURTH GIRL: Well, I know many people at school who don't look upon sex as a way of showing affection. For them it's a way to release pent-up emotions and they have a little pattern that they follow. The only way the experience is meaningful is that these boys can say, "Oh man, want to hear what I did Friday night? You know, I really had a ball; let me tell you all about it." And they tell—every little detail.

FIFTH GIRL: When you say you're using sex to show your affection, how do you know that is what you are doing? I mean how do you know whether it's lust, or how do you know it has a deeper meaning?

FOURTH BOY: Because I know myself.

SECOND BOY: Well, when you like someone, you become involved with them emotionally, but what if it gets out of hand?

SECOND GIRL: I think when you're very involved with someone you express your deep emotions for them, your affection, in a sense maybe your love for them through sex. At the same time, it's not as though you're saying, "OK, now I'm going to kiss you because I like you and for no other reason." You're also going to do it because you enjoy kissing and being kissed.

SECOND BOY: I know that, but what I'm saying is that if you're really involved with a person emotionally, you wonder will more sex, heavier sex, ruin the relationship? Are you both emotionally ready to handle it?

FIRST GIRL: I think that this is where it becomes important to discuss it. I mean you need to be able to say, "OK, now, we're both 18, but I find I'm not as mature as some people I know, so I don't want to sleep with you." If you're going to be very close to someone, if you want to have a worthwhile relationship, you can't sit around blushing every time you talk about sex. A couple have to feel at ease enough with each other to be able to discuss it. As far as I'm concerned, if you know someone well enough to sleep with him, then you should be acquainted well enough to discuss it with him.

MRS. SCHILLER: Could we take it a step further and say you also have to discuss the possible consequences in terms of your own feelings, in terms of how you would feel if this particular relationship should end?

FIRST GIRL: Oh, yes. This is the kind of thing that you ought to want to discuss if you're very much involved with someone. Let's say you've been dating for three years, so you sleep together, and then you go away to different colleges and when you're in college you meet someone new. Well, just because you stop dating someone doesn't mean you're going to forget all about what's happened. It can leave a great mark on you.

FIFTH BOY: We're looking for an easy way of dealing with sex. Well, there isn't going to be an easy way. What we need to find is the most rational and intelligent way.

MRS. SCHILLER: Is there anywhere you can turn—anyone you can go to for help in just talking about it, perhaps?

SECOND GIRL: If you're really fortunate, you have some friends you can talk with—perhaps somebody older. Maybe you have a brother or sister, or perhaps you can communicate with your parents. And sometimes if you're lucky you'll meet a teacher who will really help you if you have a problem.

FOURTH GIRL: If you try to talk to your parents and you tell them a problem you have, they'll give you an answer you may not want to hear. So, even if you know that their answer is right, you go and talk to your friends, and they'll sympathize with you or agree with you and that's what you want to hear.

FIRST GIRL: Birth control is another problem. Can you talk to your parents about that? Many parents don't like their children to know about birth control and the fact that it is available. My mother would talk to me about it, but I found that I knew a little more than she did.

FOURTH GIRL: My parents are sort of pseudo-liberal, but I can't go to them and say, "Could you tell me about birth control?" I think the schools ought to handle this.

FIRST BOY: That brings up a question. If you did have sex education in school, which kind of teacher would you rather have teaching it, one who teaches what he has learned through social experience, one who teaches what he has learned through educational experiences or one who uses a combination of the two?

FIFTH BOY: I don't think it has anything to do with their experiences. What you need is just a certain personality that certain teachers have.

SECOND GIRL: I think it's got to be a combination of both—education and social experience.

MRS. SCHILLER: I think you're saying that when you feel that a teacher is someone you respect and who knows what he's talking about, this will help spark some response in you. You want a teacher to give you the opportunity to talk about your feelings and not give the impression that he's a censor standing up saying you can't do this or that. You want someone who will say, "Sure, let's talk about it." Perhaps you want the teacher to act

as devil's advocate—provoke you but at the same time stimulate you to think and give you the sense of being free to talk about your thoughts.

REACTION BY MRS. KOONTZ

The discussion among these high school students was rather frank but probably quite mild compared to what many teachers have heard from students who confide in them. It did, however, reflect the wide range of views and concerns that young people have about sex and sex education, though the questions they raised seemed to touch only the surface of things.

You can see from this symposium that adolescents desire independence, that they don't want adults telling them what to do or what to think. And you can see (and I believe) that young people think we are either fairly naive or are deceptive if we fail to expose them to the truth about themselves in dignified terms—at least in terms that spare them embarrassment.

Many schools do deal objectively and honestly with the whole matter of sex relationships. But open, honest, frank discussion continues to embarrass many young people—simply because they have been led to believe that anything associated with the subject of sex is dirty.

Interestingly, this symposium seems to reveal that an adolescent's willingness to turn to his parents for guidance may very well be determined by how his mother responded when he first asked where babies come from.

But to me the most important question is: Can teaching about human sexuality help these young people achieve better family relationships when they become parents?

Perhaps the greatest difficulty in this whole area lies in the fact that sex education (if we insist upon calling it that) has to involve a great deal more than teaching young people about the mechanics of sex or about the natural body responses that are a part of maturation.

Instead I believe educators and parents must begin to deal with the entire issue in terms of human sexuality, which includes relationships that exist within the family constellation (husband-wife, father-child, mother-child, sibling-sibling) and outside relationships (between adults and children, members of peer groups, boys and girls), as well.

I think that parents are frequently unable to discuss frankly with their children the human sexual experience. Perhaps they are hesitant to be truthful because they have unconscious apprehensions about grappling with a paradoxical idea: that sexual intercourse is a fine and beautiful thing between two people who love each other—but only inside marriage; never outside of it. In many cases, parents have been at a loss to say why.

To complicate matters further, young people are often aware of the extramarital activities of persons who are respected members of the community or who are in the limelight or who are those they admire and even adore—conceivably their own parents.

We must also take into consideration that all children do not have two parents, that sometimes their father and mother are not married when they were born and that the father is not in the home. Let's face the fact that widespread knowledge of the pill and of other contraceptives has largely removed the fear that parents used to rely on: the great danger of pregnancy. Today's youngsters can count among their peers some who engage in the sex act and yet manage to avoid pregnancy.

I think teachers have to look at the whole issue of sex and teach from another standpoint—from a knowledge of how people really relate to each other, how their natural urges and their emotions play a part in their everyday affairs, their fears and self-confidence. If we agree on this point then it is necessary for us to look at why people refrain from doing certain things that society frowns upon or why they do them in great secrecy. I believe that when we look at this we will begin to realize that some people seem almost to have split personalities. They are quite willing to conform outwardly to society's standards and rules but if, perhaps, they can break these same rules in secrecy so that no one knows, then they will.

I think what young people are asking is this: Is a certain kind of relationship all right if no one knows about it? Or does the fact that someone knows about it make it wrong? They're searching for answers that will allow them to develop wholesome relationships but that will also let them be accepted members of their peer groups.

If the discussion among these young people indicates anything at all for us, it is that the school bears a responsibility for teaching about human sexuality just as it bears a responsibility for teaching about health. The difference is in the kind of health. If teachers can first convince themselves, then they will be able to interpret to young people and to parents and communities that learning about family life or human sexuality cannot wait until one is almost an adult. Influences on character traits, on actions and relationships begin far, far before the first grade. Much, therefore, should be done in families before a child begins formal learning.

And so the effort must be cooperative. Let those who say this is the sole responsibility of the family or of the church remind themselves that thousands of children belong to families that are unable to give them this kind of direction or guidance. Thousands do not enjoy the benefit of religious institutions willing to take on this kind of teaching.

Perhaps it *is* a responsibility of home and church. But certainly the schools—where children establish many relationships and where the child who knows no other source is free to ask questions—should consider whether to accept the responsibility of effectively adding to the child's education about himself and others, or whether to allow him to get misinformation from his peers and grow up with distorted attitudes that will make for problems in the future. •

PUNCTUATION PERSONIFIED

ROBERT HALE, *computer programmer, Baltimore, Maryland.*

is very sure of himself. "I know that for a fact."

is professorial and pedantic. "The instructions are as follows:"

"Look at me everybody—I'm a star."

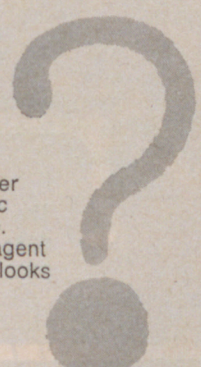
has a Jekyll and Hyde personality. Sometimes he prevents conflicts and collisions. At other times he operates as a second-story man under the alias of an apostrophe.

never has any original thoughts and is always quoting authorities. "My doctor says; my hairdresser thinks."

think they are secret agents—are always going off on a tangent and dragging in irrelevant clues.

is the troubled child of the . and the , who wonders whether heredity or environment is more important in his case.

should be used only in an emergency. Fire! Raid!



is the doubter and agnostic of the group. The secret agent usually overlooks this obvious culprit.

is very brash—notice how he is always interrupting.

never makes a definite statement . . . just sort of fades away. . . .

Mr. Hale says his interest in grammar and punctuation stems from being raised by two English professors. His parents teach at the University of North Dakota.

How a Bill...

Most bills can be introduced in either chamber, with the exception of revenue measures, which must originate in the House of Representatives. However, the procedure by which a bill becomes a law is much the same regardless of where the bill originates.

In the legislative maze shown here, the bill is first introduced in the Senate. It is given a number and referred to the committee concerned with the subject of the bill.

1 The committee may hold public hearings on the bill, inviting interested and knowledgeable parties to testify on its merits.

The full committee kills the bill.

2 The full committee meets in executive (closed) session to consider the facts.

Most bills are shelved in committee and never heard from again!

3 The full committee may approve the bill with or without amendments, or draft a new bill. The bill is then "reported" to the floor. The final version of the bill and the accompanying report are given to all members of the Senate for study. The committee, in reporting the bill, recommends it for passage. It is then listed on the Senate calendar for debate.

4 The bill comes up for debate. Depending on the degree of controversy, debate may last from a few minutes to several days. Amendments may or may not be added. The bill is then voted on.

The bill does not pass.

5 The bill passes and goes to the 435-member House of Representatives for action. It is referred to the proper committee.

6 Hearings may be held.

The committee rejects the bill.

7 The committee prepares a new bill, or accepts the bill with or without amendments.

10 The Rules Committee clears the bill for debate before the entire House.

12 If the House does pass the bill, but in a version greatly different from that of the Senate, either body may request a conference committee. The conferees meet and try to reconcile their differences. Five conferees that represent both parties are usually appointed from each house.

The bill is not passed.

11 The bill goes before the entire House, where it is debated and voted on.

13 Generally, the conferees reach an agreement. They report back to their respective chambers.

If either house disagrees with the conference report, the bill may be sent back to conference for further discussion and reconciliation of differences.

9 The Rules Committee is one of the most powerful committees in the House of Representatives. After a bill has been recommended for passage by the committee to which it was referred, the Rules Committee can block it or clear it for debate before the entire House.

14 Both houses accept the report. The bill is signed by the presiding officer of each chamber—the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate.

If Congress has adjourned before 10 days have elapsed and the President has not signed the the bill, it does not become law. This is known as a "pocket veto."

16 If the President doesn't sign the bill within 10 days and Congress is still in session, the bill automatically becomes law. As soon as the bill becomes law, it is given a public law number and is officially recorded in the statute books.

Rules Committee blocks the bill. (A discharge petition signed by at least 218 members of the House can clear the bill for House consideration. This procedure of obtaining a discharge petition seldom succeeds, however.)

8 The committee recommends the bill for passage. It is listed on the calendar and is sent to the Rules Committee.

...Becomes a Law

If the President returns the bill with a veto message, it may still become law if, upon reconsideration, both houses pass it by a two-thirds majority.

15 Upon approval of both houses, the bill is sent to the White House for the President's signature.

This presentation includes only the highlights and omits many details. Much important behind-the-scenes action takes place, and some of these activities are discussed by Charles Brown, a former Congressman, on the next two pages.

CHARLES H. BROWN, *former Congressman; legislative consultant, Washington, D. C.*

How To Get a Bill Through Congress

• **When people ask me how to get a bill through Con**gress, I think of the cynical but cogent advice a famous composer of popular music once gave an aspiring young songwriter who asked how to get a song published: "Get Frank Sinatra, Dinah Shore, or Eddy Arnold to agree to record your song. Then go home and write it. It will be published."

Similarly, the best way to get a bill enacted into law is to get leaders of the House and Senate (and the White House, if possible) to support your proposal; then write the bill. It will be passed.

The trick, of course, is to get the support of the key legislators. (And Frank Sinatra should be so hard to get!) Congressional leaders do not generally support a major proposal—even one of high intrinsic merit—until they are convinced that a substantial number of other Congressmen are also willing to do so. And Congressmen are not generally willing to back major legislation until a broad segment of their constituency demands action (especially those directly affected) and until opposition has been muted or isolated. So, to say, "Get the support of key leaders," is really saying, "Get the people for it."

Many political scientists contend that, since the 1930's, Congress has become an "enacting" rather than an "initiating" body, pointing out that much landmark legislation originates in the White House (i.e., Medicare, civil rights measures, poverty programs). They concede that Congress has taken the lead on occasions when the majority of Congress has been of one political party and the President of another.

Yet it has been my experience that major legislation is initiated by neither the White House nor the Congress, but by those in the electorate most directly concerned—through their political action groups. Farmers' associations initiate farm legislation; education associations, education legislation; business associations, business legislation.

Representative government is not creative; it is *responsive.* So, the first step in passing a bill through Congress is to present a valid problem to the Congress and/or the White House. The presentation can be as simple as a letter to a Representative or as elaborate as a multi-million dollar public relations campaign. The idea is to get attention.

Naturally, it helps to have a reservoir of goodwill with members of Congress before requesting legislation, and some organizations devote substantial time, money, and effort toward this end. When they ask, they ask from a position of strength.

How do they gain this position of strength? One way is to help a Senator or Congressman get elected or reelected, not just with votes but with hard work, plainly visible to the candidate. Another is to make campaign contributions.

At today's costs for television, billboards, and printing, it takes from $30,000 to $300,000 to make a race for the House (highest in the urban and suburban districts, of course) and it takes $300,000 to $5 million to run for the Senate. Candidates must rely on friends and supporters for these huge sums. Organizations that contributed large sums to a lawmaker's campaign are naturally going to get a friendly hearing when they go to the Senator or Representative to request his support for legislation.

This is not to imply that they will automatically get his support, but it is a fact of life that money is a factor in political campaigns and, hence, a factor in securing a legislator's interest in proposed legislation. Those who get involved in politics—working and contributing to campaigns—negotiate from strength and find their Congressmen willing to listen to any reasonable proposal they submit.

Influence is not limited to the political activists. Good Senators and Representatives give consideration to all constituents. One well-written, rational letter about a specific bill and its importance is sometimes a Congressman's awakening to a given problem. Several good letters from several constituents on the subject can arouse his interest. Hundreds of such letters can gain his support.

So, let's say that letters and personal contact have aroused a Congressman's interest in some legislative proposal. He has heard the arguments for the proposal. He now listens with radar ears for opposition. Unfortunately—because politicians hate controversy—one voice against seems to speak more loudly than ten voices for a proposal. Would that all bills in a session could be passed by unanimous consent or at least by overwhelming consensus, say Congressmen.

If there is vocal opposition to the bill, the chairman of the legislative committee to which it has been referred will often delay scheduling hearings. "Let's not poke around that hornets' nest" or "Gad—don't we have enough troubles without opening up that can of worms?"

But if enough members voice interest in the proposed bill, if the opposition appears reconcilable, the chairman may proceed with hearings. The scheduling of hearings triggers what is called the legislative process. This refers to the grueling obstacle course that some authorities say was designed by the Founding Fathers to prevent—rather than to pass—legislation. Whether true or not, it is a demanding process, fraught with pitfalls for any legislative proposal.

Consider the process. (The legislative maze on pages 28-29, "How a Bill Becomes a Law," shows the steps in the legislative process. I will outline the same steps with emphasis on the pitfalls any bill may encounter.) On its way through the two houses, a bill can die for want of a vote or an affirmative action at any one of 11 points (denoted below by asterisks).

The bill is introduced (in this example, in the House of Representatives) and referred to the appropriate legislative committee. As the legislative maze suggests, this is the most crucial stage in the life of a bill, for the great majority of bills introduced in Congress are pigeonholed in committee.

The committee holds hearings, considers, amends, approves,* and reports the bill for listing on the calendar. It is referred to the Rules Committee.

The Rules Committee gives it a rule (i.e., clears it for consideration by the full House with specific regulations on length of debate, amendment limitations, and the like).*

The House leadership schedules the bill for action.*

House members debate, amend, vote.*

The bill goes to the Senate. The appropriate committee there holds hearings, considers, amends, approves.* It is reported for listing on the calendar.

The Senate leadership calls it up for action.*

Senate members debate, amend, vote.*

If passed, and if the Senate version of the bill is identical with the House-passed bill, the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate sign it and send it to the White House for Presidential action.*

Generally, however, the Senate version differs from the House version, so back it must go to the House for concurrence. Sometimes (especially in the closing hours of a session) the originating body will concur in the changes. Most of the time, it will not. So, the House committee chairman requests that a conference committee from the House confer with a similar Senate committee to iron out differences.*

The conference committee confers, argues, and ultimately agrees (or disagrees).*

Back goes the revised bill to the Senate and the House (through the Rules Committee in the latter body), and if both houses still claim their brainchild after all this plastic surgery, the bill is signed by the proper officials and is sent to the White House.*

How long does all this take? "The mills of God grind slowly" in the Congress; and quite often, a major piece of constroversial legislation may require the full two years of a term of Congress from hearings to final passage.

Much persuasion and trading goes on among members of Congress before a bill becomes law. Many of the votes for legislative proposals result from private agreements wherein one member votes for a colleague's bill in exchange for the colleague's support for *his* project. And, of course, the strongest pressure of all often comes from the White House.

The legislative process is, indeed, an obstacle course —complete with live ammunition! En route through the labyrinth, a proposal is strengthened or weakened, perfected or destroyed, compromised or gutted, depending on one's point of view.

Because the process is so grueling and demanding, Congressional leaders try to schedule a minimum number of major bills in any two-year term. As seasoned students of human behavior, they know the public's natural resistance to change, especially too much change at any one time. They also know the membership's natural resistance to too much controversy. So, they like to "season" bills—hold hearings on them one season and not try to pass them until the next, so the electorate will have ample time to get informed and accustomed to the proposal.

The most important work that can be done on behalf of new legislation, in my opinion, is the campaign waged among the "folks back home" *before* a bill comes up for vote. Those bills that gain solid grass-roots support across the country ultimately will be passed.

Next in importance is *effective lobbying.* No Congressman can possibly know the detailed information necessary for sound legislation in every field. Informed and conscientious advocates are often the members' only source for reliable information; and Congressmen quickly come to know the advocates they can trust.

Critics say the U.S. Congress is the bottleneck in the nation's march toward progress. Certainly, some of the traditional methods and procedures in Congress could stand updating. But for all its flaws, our federal legislative system works. •

OPINIONS DIFFER

An "A" student looks back to his high school days and decries

THE GRADING GAME

BRIAN PATRICK McGUIRE, *graduate student, Balliol College, Oxford, England.*

• **Last spring I graduated from the University of** California, Berkeley, with the highest grade-point average in the College of Letters and Science. In preparing a speech I had been asked to deliver at the annual Phi Beta Kappa dinner, I did some hard thinking that quickly made me realize that my single-minded pursuit of high grades in college had not been worth it. The grade-point game had distracted me from the real goal of education—the development of myself as a person.

My speech at the Phi Beta Kappa dinner advocated the elimination of the letter-grading system and the placing of all courses outside the major field on a pass-fail basis. I recommended that in major areas, each student would be evaluated by means of written appraisals after the completion of each course.

Although my proposals (based on the problems I had experienced in my own university education) were directed to institutions of higher education, I found that high school teachers and students were interested in my suggestions. The very first letter I received after my speech came from a high school teacher in Merced, California, who congratulated me for saying what she had believed all her teaching life: that grades provide a major obstacle to anyone concerned with teaching or learning.

Since last spring, I have heard from a number of other secondary school teachers and have discussed the matter with many high school students. On the basis of this I have become convinced that the traditional letter-grading system should also be eliminated in precollege education, for it discourages learning more than it encourages it.

Actually, my own experience in secondary school should have been enough to lead me to this conclusion. At the high school I attended in Berkeley, California, my friends and I learned to play the grade-point game with consummate skill. We were preparing for the game of college, and we were told time and again that we had to follow the rules in high school so we would be admitted to the major leagues.

Most of us never questioned the rules. But now that I can look back upon both high school and college, I view the whole system as unfortunate. My major objection to grading as I experienced it is that grades instead of merely symbolizing what had been learned usually became the sought-after goal. In almost all of my courses, my classmates and I were concerned not with how much we were going to learn, but with how much knowledge we had to acquire in order to get a high grade.

Whenever a major examination was imminent, we began to compute exactly how much we had to know in order to get the grade we wanted or needed. As one of my friends summarized his philosophy, we wanted "the best possible grade for the least possible amount of work."

More outwardly idealistic than my friend, I pretended to be shocked by such an outlook. But now, in retrospect, I can see that I was working within the same framework. Like the others, I gauged my efforts on the requirements each teacher set up for the magical "A." Each teacher posed a separate challenge. We would observe his tastes and preferences and then cater to them. Before the first grading period was over, the teachers had revealed their personalities and expectations sufficiently for all of us to know how much preparation was necessary for the first examination.

In high school most of us were too young to be consciously cynical about what we were doing. The problem was more one of adjusting to the system as we found it than of asking ourselves why we were behaving as we were. The classroom was only an extension of the playing field. Good grades were like games won, and points in American history were almost the same as points in a basketball game. The idea of competition was exalted as a good thing in studies as well as in sports.

Knowledge became a matter of discrete packets of information greedily acquired and then unwrapped and displayed on examination papers. Despite occasional orations on the real aims of education and the fulfillment of learning, the difference between what was preached to us and the way we learned did not bother us.

Self-awareness would have been a dubious quality in those days, for so many of our assumptions had in them the makings of disillusionment. As a freshman, I gravitated to a social group that contained the students who accepted the same values I did. We stood on the same spot in the yard at lunchtime for four years and usually spent our time discussing the next examination. Unknowingly we segregated ourselves from the rest of our class. We were the "A" honor-roll group, and somehow students who were not on the honor roll did not get into our group. We never thought of ourselves as being proud or aloof, but of course we never bothered to listen to what those outside our group had to say about us.

It wasn't until my senior year that I realized the resentment felt by others toward the class pecking order. In the spring, the whole class went on a religious retreat. During our discussions, we began to comment on our relations with each other. At one point while I was speaking, another student, Steve,

JOURNAL editors invite letters of comment on how readers rate the "grading game."

interrupted me: "McGuire, you and all the others like you think you're so good and so much above the rest of us. You get your grades and count your honors and won't have anything to do with anyone else." Before that moment I had hardly been aware of Steve's existence. Now I was stunned to see how disgusted he was by the way of life I represented to him. The very values I had accepted without question had helped make me blind to him and to others like him in the class. I was tempted to dismiss the attack as pure jealousy, but I knew that there was much more than jealousy in his words.

For a few days I was bothered by the realization that my unconscious acceptance of the grading system as my criterion for learning and even for friendships had cut me off from many of the people in my class. Then I rationalized that a division between me and "the others" was almost necessary for the continuation of my academic success. I remembered how a friend of mine had summarized the situation by a principle from physics: "A body is buoyed up in a fluid by a force equal to the weight of that fluid which it displaces." In other words, a good student looks good because he is being supported by comparison with the mediocrity of poorer students.

This principle was a ready cure for pre-examination anxiety. I only had to remember that everyone else would score much lower than I, and so my grade would inevitably be an "A" even if I had a limited understanding of the material. Consequently, I would gauge myself and my success not on what I had learned, but on what everyone else had *not* learned. Now that I look back upon this inverse system of learning, I wonder how I could have accepted such a cynical outlook. But I was so caught up in competition for grades that I could be oblivious to my own methods.

Some of my teachers tried to avoid the pitfalls of inverse learning by carefully setting up rigid standards independent of class averages. They would compute everything in points. If someone did not acquire a certain number of points, then he could not get an "A," no matter how poorly the rest of the class did. But such a system made students think of knowledge in terms of individual quanta, each worth a certain number of points. All knowledge-quanta without point value immediately became irrelevant. The demands of academic efficiency deadened intellectual curiosity. If a certain chapter was not required for an examination, we would ignore it. With the guidelines of the point system, we did the minimum work for the maximum grade. With the point system the advantage was that the minimum was more exactly defined.

To those who object to grades, the pat answer is that the grading system is indeed a game, but life is made up of such games, and the sooner one learns how to play with skill, the better. Everyone is aware of the game's inequities, such as varying standards from teacher to teacher, but one finds inequities of this sort on every hand. The point is to learn to cope with situations like this in school so that one will know how to act later on. And sometimes it can even be fun to bluff your way through by pretending to know something.

The fallacy of this argument is obvious: It assumes that the grading system is sound because it follows the patterns of other life systems. The argument tries to excuse the injustice of grades on the basis of the injustice one finds in life in general. But no matter how faithfully the grading system corresponds to life, its basic flaw remains. It forces students to concentrate on marks instead of learning.

Many people would probably agree with some of the preceding observations but claim that if grades were removed, then there would be no motivation for students to learn. Such a fear ignores the real motiva-

tion behind the learning process. What I did learn in high school, I learned because I found joy in discovering what I had not previously known about myself, other people, and the world. The moment of recognition gave a reward that no grade could replace. Without such moments the whole structure of grades and preparation for college would never have been able to convince me to study.

Always grades were only the threat, the cattle prod. The real motivation was the satisfaction I acquired from the process of discovery. With some teachers I could almost forget about the grade and simply enjoy the interaction among the teacher, the subject, and myself. Those were the classes where I learned the most, for I was concentrating on the joy inherent in personal discoveries rather than on the punishment of a bad grade or the satisfaction of a good one.

One alternative to the letter-grading system is the pass-fail standard. Pass-fail sets a certain minimum requirement for all students but makes no attempt to classify their achievements beyond that standard. It would be up to the teacher to write an analysis of each student's work at the end of the semester. Such an evaluation would avoid the traditional slots of "A," "B," "C," "D" or word equivalents like "Excellent," or "Good." Instead the teacher would be called upon to outline the exact areas of the subject in which the student had made progress and the areas in which he showed weakness. Also the student himself would be asked to evaluate his own work and to point out the ways he could have done better.

At the beginning, middle, and end of each year, students would take standardized national examinations. Such examinations would compare a student's performance in a subject-matter area over the year. The standard of the class as a whole in relation to other classes could also be noted. Results on such examinations would by no means replace grades. They would be looked upon only as indications of progress, while the main critique would still come from the teacher himself. This individual evaluation would encourage the teacher to think of the student in terms of what he has learned instead of in terms of the student's response to an arbitrary standard of learning.

These proposals are by no means original. Some of them are already in effect in some high schools. The main objection to individual evaluations is that they would take up too much time. But such appraisals would not require significantly more time than is needed by a teacher to compute averages and record grades. If teachers could be less concerned with manipulating point and percentage systems, they would have more time for evaluating each student individually.

Pass-fail and individual evaluation are only suggestions. The main point is that the present A-F, letter-grade system detracts from the quality of learning more than it contributes. In high school I came into contact with many good teachers, but they as well as their students were constantly handicapped by having the system of grades superimposed on the education we were seeking. Grades do bring a kind of orderliness, but they also put up artificial barriers between people and learning and between people and people. The narrow pursuit of grades becomes a poor substitute for discoveries of the world. The grading system provides a breeding ground for mediocrity and cynicism. Learning gets lost in a maze of points, minuses, and pluses.

We must abolish the grading system and replace it by another means of evaluation that has less tendency to dominate the educational process. •

Every individual longs in the very nature of his individuality to be and to be treated as special, for deeply he is special. When the teacher is in the role of counselor and confidant, every student is special and unique, and must feel so. No pretense will do: the special nature of the relation must be genuine.

Many years ago when I was a graduate student, I had an experience that I believe will stay with me always. It was late in the afternoon toward the end of a long and somewhat discouraging week. I was sitting in an old classroom at the university writing a paper on personality health. The woman who did the cleaning of the rooms in those days came in to begin her work. We were friends and I asked her, "Mary, if you were in bad trouble or had a difficult decision to make, what would you do first?" She looked at me a moment and replied from her unschooled wisdom, "I'd find someone I had confidence in and talk it over with 'em alone." Every student has this need again and again along the journey of learning.

—**Earl V. Pullias** *and* **James D. Young** *in* A Teacher Is Many Things. *Indiana University Press. 1968.*

STUDENTS AND DRUG ABUSE

• **Drug abuse is many things. It is** the heroin user injecting his bag of H, the Methedrine user high on "speed," the teen-ager smoking "pot," the 12-year-old sniffing model airplane glue. But it is also the adult starting his day with an amphetamine for a needed "pick-me-up" and ending it with several drinks to "unwind" and a barbiturate to put him to sleep.

The problem of drug abuse reaches deeply into our values, aspirations, and fears. It is an emotionally charged area for almost all of us. Drug abuse is a serious, growing problem here (and in many other countries) and teachers are increasingly being called upon to *do something.* They face the difficult task of deciding just what and how to teach about drugs.

Certainly no single article, pamphlet, book, or film can enable teachers to be effective. This article, prepared by the staff of the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) as an aid to teachers, contains a brief summary of the latest scientific findings and some hints that have proven helpful in communicating with youngsters who are thinking about drugs or have already experimented with them. There is much still to be learned about the problem and particularly about how to be more effective in discouraging drug abuse. We hope that the suggestions contained in this feature will be supplemented by ideas from teachers throughout the country as they develop better ways of helping their students deal with this problem.

The National Institute of Mental Health will welcome letters from teachers telling about their approaches and the results they have achieved in communicating with their students about the abuse of drugs. The address is Public Information Branch, NIMH, 5454 Wisconsin Avenue, Chevy Chase, Maryland 20015.

Some Concrete Suggestions

Avoid Panic. Teachers are in a particularly good position to encourage parents, students, and the community to remain level-headed about drug abuse.

Drug abuse, like other forms of aberrant behavior, may have varying causes. For some, it may represent ill-advised experimentation; for others it may indicate basic or adolescent psychological problems. If a teacher has reason to believe that one of his students is experiencing serious emotional difficulties, consultation should be sought with the school counselor and a conference arranged with the parents with a view to obtaining professional help for the youngster. Some types of behavior that may be associated with serious problems include: loss of interest in school and social relationships with others, marked alteration in behavior, deterioration in physical and personal appearance, and the development of problems in dealing with school and parents. Since the reasons for drug use vary widely, so must the approaches to individual students.

While the teacher can play a role

This 16-page Special Feature was prepared by the Public Information Branch and Center for Studies of Narcotic and Drug Abuse, National Institute of Mental Health, in cooperation with the staff of TODAY'S EDUCATION.

The National Institute of Mental Health, Health Services, and Mental Health Administration of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, is the principal federal agency responsible for research on drug abuse. Through its Center for Studies of Narcotic and Drug Abuse, the Institute conducts a major program of support for research, training, and services dealing with the problem.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the National Science Teachers Association of the National Education Association are sponsoring a joint one-year project on drug-abuse education. The project funded by the NIMH is focusing on training teachers in health education and science, as well as in a number of other areas.

In October 1968, 19 educators from across the nation conducted an initial conference at which they developed guidelines for pilot in-service programs, classroom activities, and the refinement of educational materials. Pilot in-service programs are currently under way in Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, Kentucky, Florida, Indiana, Colorado, California, and Michigan.

Preconvention seminars are being planned in conjunction with the AAHPER and NSTA 1969 national meetings. The AAHPER program will take place in Boston, April 9 and 10, at the Statler Hilton Hotel; NSTA's will be in Dallas, March 19-20, at the Statler Hilton Hotel.

These two-day seminars will present programs for teacher in-service training and will include information on the pharmacological, legal, and psychosocial aspects of drugs. In addition, the seminars will present and discuss suggested in-service activities, organizational and administrative guidelines for school drug abuse programs, and varied audiovisual and printed materials.

Marvin R. Levy, formerly consultant in health and safety with the New Jersey State Department of Education, is director of the project.

Single copy reprints of this Special Feature are available from Box 1080, National Institute of Mental Health, Washington, D.C. 20013.

in referring suspected problems to the proper authorities, a panic reaction expressed either to the student or to a parent can serve only to alienate the student further and to confuse what should be straightforward, objective, and professional action if the student needs help.

Keep Lines of Communication Open. Encouraging an atmosphere in which the student feels free to confide in parents and teachers and to discuss his concerns is an important first step. Obviously, the size of present classes often makes personal contact difficult. At the same time, if the student realizes that his parents and teachers are making a genuine effort to understand his point of view, this realization is likely to help him in the process of growing up. Although it's sometimes difficult, it's important to avoid being moralistic and judgmental in talking about drugs and drug users.

Many adults, including teachers, feel uncomfortable and defensive about discussing drugs with teen-agers. This is sometimes due to awareness of our own inconsistencies in the use of everyday substances like tobacco and alcohol. Nevertheless, there are good and convincing arguments against the use of drugs which can be stated in terms that are persuasive to youth. For example, some teen-agers see the use of drugs as one way of developing heightened self-awareness or of enhancing their inner freedom. Pointing out the difficulty of achieving these goals if they become drug-dependent may help them realize the fallacy of this viewpoint. Similarly, if young people are to improve the society of which they are critical, they can only do so by remaining a part of it rather than by chemically "copping out."

Avoid "Scare" Techniques. Use of sensational accounts or scare techniques in trying to discourage drug experimentation is usually ineffective because the teen-ager's direct knowledge frequently contradicts them. Teen-agers are demanding—and are entitled to—honest and accurate answers. Given the facts, youngsters often quickly respond. The apparent decline in LSD usage, for example, is believed to be related to the well-publicized reports of possible adverse psychological and potential biological hazards.

It is impossible to eliminate or legislate away all possible substances of abuse. The individual decides for himself whether to use or not to use drugs. To be effective, prevention ultimately must be based on each student's decision not to use drugs because they are incompatible with his personal goals. Emphasizing that no authority, whether school official or police officer, can make that ultimate decision for him may help the youngster clarify his personal responsibility. It may also help to reduce the adolescent tendency to view drug abuse as an act of rebellion.

Because the abuse of drugs frequently carries with it heavy legal penalties, it is important that youngsters be aware of the possible long-term results of their behavior. While this should not be the primary emphasis, the legal and social implications over a lifetime should be indicated as two of the essential factors to be taken into consideration in any decision to use or not use drugs. Some young people, feeling keenly that certain drug laws are unjust, advocate violating them. Thoughtful discussion of the implications of such violation and of whether the use of drugs is sufficiently important to them to justify such extreme measures may be helpful.

Avoid Creating an Atmosphere of Distrust and Suspicion. Like many parents, some teachers, anxious to discourage drug abuse, are likely to assume that *any* departure from the preferred styles and customs of the majority is indicative of drug abuse. Youngsters who have tried or are using drugs come in all sizes and shapes—with short as well as long hair, and conventional clothes as well as eccentric dress. So do those who don't use drugs.

By equating unconventional appearance with drug abuse, we may encourage the very behavior we're trying to avoid. At a minimum, the youngster is likely to feel that the conventional world is completely opposed to any originality or creativity that does not fit a common mold and that the price of acceptance is complete conformity. While his external appearance may conform to the norm, there is no assurance that drug abuse will not become his private mode of rebellion.

Since the problem of teen-age drug abuse embraces a wider range of substances than those prohibited by law, even an attitude of active suspicion and continuous surveillance, were that possible, would not eliminate the problem. It would, however, almost certainly destroy the climate of trust and confidence essential to the intergenerational communication that is desirable in preventing abuse.

Avoid Drug Stereotypes. Many of us, when we think about the drug misuser, immediately think of some more or less vague stereotype of "the addict." Similarly, we often tend to think of all the misused drugs as being generally alike. Nothing could be further from the truth. Present evidence suggests that the vast majority of youngsters who experiment with marihuana, the most popular illegal drug of abuse, do so on a onetime, experimental basis.

Drugs differ widely in their chemical composition and, more important, perhaps, in their effects —depending upon the personality of the user and the circumstances of use. The person who misuses drugs may vary from the onetime user experimenting out of curiosity to the chronic, heavy user who is psychologically dependent on a drug. While some types of drug misuse may be fairly apparent even to the untrained observer, other types may be so subtle as to escape the detection of even the expert.

Although some drug users go on to the use of more potent types of drugs, many others do not. Just why some users become dependent on particular drugs and others do not is not very clearly understood. It may be related to personality development, but physiological factors may also play a role. While a physical dependency on the drug plays some role, psychological dependence appears to be more important. Physical dependence on heroin, for example, can be cured in a relatively short time; yet the

heroin addict has a very difficult time avoiding using the drug again upon discharge from treatment.

Be Well-Informed Yourself About Drugs. Much information is available about the drug problem—some of it accurate and useful. But unfortunately much of what is published tends to be overdramatized and frequently inaccurate.

Much of the controversy over the effects of marihuana and its control, for example, results from overinterpretation or misinterpretation of what little data are presently available. Drug-use advocates frequently use the scarcity of scientifically reliable information as a basis for arguing that marihuana and other drugs are harmless. The absence of complete agreement based on reliable evidence that a substance is harmful does not, of course, demonstrate its harmlessness. Often, relatively long-term use of a substance is required before its public health implications are apparent. Cigarette smoking provides an obvious and apt example. While American experience with marihuana is of relatively short duration, foreign research studies, though often difficult to interpret, suggest that long-term use of marihuana may be detrimental to the health of the users.

A discussion of the implications of various social policies regarding marihuana and public health is one approach that may enable you to reach your students. The social problems of adding another intoxicant of unknown long-range implications to our present difficulties with alcohol may be the subject of profitable discussion. Another topic which might stimulate good discussions among intelligent youngsters and their teachers is the problem of allowing a harmful drug to become popular and then subsequently making it illegal. It might also be productive to discuss some of the originally unsuspected deleterious effects of drugs, such as the birth defects resulting from use of Thalidomide.

Use Drug Education Materials as a Springboard to Discussion. Even good films, pamphlets, and other materials need to be made personally relevant to students. This can usually be done best through discussion. As teachers skilled in classroom discussion are well aware, much of the art of effective discussion requires that the teacher be a thoughtful and responsive listener as well as a catalyst.

The arguments (often heated) of the student who advocates use of drugs deserve a hearing and, when appropriate, a considered rebuttal. Often a teen-ager's apparent conviction masks considerable uncertainty about the worth of his arguments, which are frequently offered to test their validity and/or the honesty of the teacher. Summarily rejecting the advocate's points may alter his classroom verbal behavior but it is unlikely to change his thinking. The most probable result of an arbitrary "put down" will be to convince the youngster that adult objections to drug use are merely prejudices.

A student-run discussion on prevention of drug abuse may be even more effective. Teen-agers are frequently far more responsive to the mores and values of their own group than they are to the values of the adult world. Former drug abusers can often be highly effective in communicating with a student group—they can "tell it like it is!"

Use by teachers and parents of alcohol and tobacco is of more than casual interest to teen-agers—all too often this is the thrust of their argument in favor of marihuana. In addition, the problem of compulsive overeating may be discussed as similar to drug dependence. Habits, such as smoking and drinking and even compulsive overeating, can readily serve to illustrate the highly persistent nature of habitual behavior despite strong rational grounds for change.

As adults we can also serve to demonstrate that it is possible to live an involved, truly meaningful life without the use of chemical substances to add meaning or excitement. The adult who is himself "turned on" by life without recourse to drugs is one of the best advertisements for that type of life.

Alternatives to Drug Use

Youngsters who find satisfaction in other activities are less likely to find *regular* use of drugs appealing. Aware of this, the teacher may open up for individual or classroom discussion ways in which students are or can become involved in activities that have personal meaning for them.

Many young people, while attempting to appear blasé or uninvolved, feel keenly the problems of our contemporary world, and opportunities for active involvement, such as work with a political party, or a program for slum children, might be encouraged. While a strong interest in other activities may not deter a student from experimenting with drugs, he is less likely to adopt habitual drug use if he feels "turned on" by shared and constructive human experiences.

Adolescence is a lonely time for many youngsters. The teen-ager who is unable to find his place in some orthodox group sometimes turns to drug use as a means of finding a kind of group acceptance. The student who is isolated from others or having more than the usual difficulties in gaining acceptance will sometimes respond very well to a special interest shown by one of his teachers. Even when the teacher is unable to solve a problem, he may serve as a necessary bridge in helping the student get assistance from some specialized professional source. Particularly for the student with a poor home situation, a sympathetic teacher can provide a model of an understanding adult who has no need to escape into a state of drugged unreality.

To help teachers and students equip themselves with the facts about drugs that are abused, simple question-and-answer sequences are presented on the following pages. These provide the latest information on marihuana, the up-and-down drugs (amphetamines and barbiturates), LSD, and drugs medically defined as narcotics. The material may be used as background information in developing classroom or small group discussions leading toward constructive personal decision making regarding the use of drugs.

Wherever possible, discussions of drug abuse should be integrated into the general curriculum rather than limited to a specific drug abuse unit or lecture.

WHAT IS MARIHUANA?

• **Marihuana is a drug found in the** flowering tops and leaves of the female Indian hemp plant, *cannabis sativa.* The plant grows in mild climates around the world, especially in Mexico, Africa, India, and the Middle East. It also grows in the United States, where the drug is known by such names as "pot," "tea," "grass," "weed," and "Mary Jane."

The drug is made by crushing or chopping into small pieces the dried leaves and flowers of the plant. This green product is usually rolled and smoked in short cigarettes or pipes, or it can be eaten mixed with food. The cigarettes are commonly known as "reefers," "joints," and "sticks." The smoke from marihuana is harsh and smells like burnt rope or dried grasses. Its sweetish odor is easily recognized.

The strength of the drug differs from place to place, depending on where and how it is grown, how it is prepared for use, and how it is stored. The marihuana available in the United States is much weaker than the kind grown in Asia, Africa, or the Middle East.

What is its use?

Marihuana is one of the least understood of all natural drugs, although it has been known for nearly 5,000 years. According to a UN survey, it has been most widely used in Asia and Africa. Very early in history, the Chinese used it to relieve pain during surgery, and the people of India used it as a medicine. Today it is used mainly for its intoxicating effects and has no known use in modern medicine.

Traffic in and use of drugs from the cannabis plant are now legally restricted in nearly every civilized country in the world, including countries where marihuana is used in religious ceremonies or as a native medicine.

How widely is it used in the United States?

The use of marihuana as an intoxicating drug was introduced in the United States in 1920. In 1937, the Federal Marihuana Tax Act outlawed its general use and every state followed with strict laws and enforcement. In the mid-1960's, authorities reported a sharp increase in the use of marihuana. Arrests on marihuana charges have more than doubled since 1960, according to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

No one knows the exact extent of marihuana use in the United States. Some health authorities believe that 4 to 5 million Americans may have used the drug at least once in their lives. Other estimates are as high as 20 million. Research studies are under way to determine more precisely just how widely the drug is used.

How does the drug work?

When smoked, marihuana quickly enters the bloodstream and acts on the brain and nervous system. It affects the user's mood and thinking, but medical science still has not discovered just how the drug works in the body, what pathway it takes to the brain, and how it produces its effects. Some scientists report that the drug accumulates in the liver. Because it may cause hallucinations when taken in very large doses, it is classed as a mild hallucinogen.

What are its physical effects?

The long-term physical effects of taking marihuana are not yet known because no one has done the kind of research needed to learn the results of chronic use. The more obvious physical reactions include rapid heartbeat, lowering of the body temperature, and sometimes reddening of the eyes. The drug also changes blood sugar levels, stimulates the appetite, and dehydrates the body. Users may get talkative, loud, unsteady, or drowsy and find it hard to coordinate their movements.

What are its other effects?

The drug's effects on the emotions and senses vary widely, depending on the amount and strength of the marihuana used. The social setting in which it is taken and what the user expects also influence his reaction to the drug.

Usually, when smoked, the drug effect is felt quickly—about 15 minutes after inhaling the smoke of the cigarette. Its effects can last from two to four hours. The range of effects can vary from depression to a feeling of excitement. Some users, however, experience no change of mood at all. The sense of time and distance of many users frequently becomes distorted. A minute may seem like an hour. Something near may seem far away.

How does marihuana affect judgment?

A person using marihuana finds it harder to make decisions that require clear thinking, and he finds himself more responsive to other people's suggestions. The drug has an adverse effect on any task that takes good reflexes and thinking. For this reason it is dangerous to drive while under the influence of the drug.

What are the latest findings about the drug?

Working with man-made tetrahydrocannabinol, one of the active ingredients of marihuana, a leading scientist recently found that high dosages of the drug brought on severe reactions in every person tested. The National Institute of Mental Health study also showed that psychotic reactions sometimes occur, for unknown reasons, in some individuals who take smaller amounts.

The scientist observed that a dose equal to one cigarette of the United States type can make the smoker feel excited or silly. After an amount equal to four cigarettes, the user's perceptions change. Colors seem brighter, and hearing seems keener. After a dose equal to 10 cigarettes, other reactions set in. The user experiences visual hallucinations (seeing things that are not there), illusions (seeing or imagining shapes in objects that are not there), or delusions (beliefs not based in reality). His mood may swing from great joy to extreme anxiety. He may become deeply depressed, or have feelings of uneasiness, panic, or fear.

Is marihuana addicting?

Authorities now think in terms of drug "dependence" rather than "addiction." Marihuana, which is not a narcotic, does not cause physical dependence as does heroin or other narcotics. This means that the body does not become dependent on continuing use of the drug. Neither does the body, probably, develop a tolerance to the drug, which would make larger and larger doses necessary to get the same effects. Withdrawal from marihuana does not produce physical sickness.

A number of scientists think the drug can cause psychological dependence, however, if its users take it regularly. All researchers agree that more knowledge of the physical, personal, and social consequences of marihuana use is needed before more factual statements can be made.

Does it lead to use of narcotics?

A 1967 Lexington study of narcotic addicts from city areas showed that more than 80 percent had previously used marihuana. Of the much larger number of persons who use marihuana, scientists agree that few go on to use morphine or heroin. No direct cause-and-effect link between the use of marihuana and narcotics has been found. Researchers point out, however, that a person predisposed to abuse one drug may be likely to abuse other, stronger drugs. Also, users of one

illicit drug may be exposed to a variety of them through contacts with drug sellers and other users.

What are the laws dealing with marihuana?

Under federal law, which classifies marihuana as a narcotic, to have, give, or sell marihuana in the United States is a felony. Federal laws and many state laws deal with the drug as severely as if it were a narcotic.

The federal penalty for possessing the drug is 2 to 10 years imprisonment for the first offense, 5 to 20 years for the second offense, and 10 to 40 years for further offenses. Fines of up to $20,000 for the first or subsequent offenses may be imposed.

State laws also control the illicit use of these drugs. For transfer or sale of the drug, the first offense may bring a 5- to 20-year sentence and a fine of up to $20,000; two or more offenses, 10 to 40 years in prison. If a person over 18 sells to a minor under 18 years of age, he is subject to a fine of up to $20,000 and/or 10 to 40 years in prison for the first offense, with no suspension of sentence and no probation or parole.

What are the special risks for young users?

Breaking the laws that deal with marihuana can have serious effects on the lives of young people. They may find their education interrupted and their future shadowed or altered by having a police record. A conviction for a felony can complicate their lives and plans at many turns. It can prevent a person from being able to enter a profession, such as medicine, law, or teaching. It can make it difficult for him to get a responsible position in business or industry. Special individual evaluation is necessary to obtain a government job. Before a student tries marihuana, he should know these facts.

Experts on human growth and development point out other risks. They say that a more subtle result of drug abuse on the young person is its effect on his personality growth and development. For young people to experiment with drugs at a time when they are going through a period of many changes in their transition to adulthood is a seriously questionable practice.

"It can be especially disturbing to a young person who is already having enough of a task getting adjusted to life and establishing his values," says an NIMH scientist engaged in studies of young marihuana users.

Another reason for caution is the lack of scientific evidence to support statements being reported by students that the use of marihuana is "medically safe." It is hoped that research now under way may add to the little currently known about the effects of the use of marihuana.

Why is so little known about the drug?

Medical science does not yet know enough about the effects of marihuana use because its active ingredient — tetrahydrocannabinol — was not available in pure form until recently. In the summer of 1966, the chemical, first synthesized by an NIMH-supported scientist in Israel, was made available for research purposes. Now for the first time researchers can accurately measure the drug's effects and study its short- and long-term action on the body.

What research is being done?

The National Institute of Mental Health, an agency of the Public Health Service, is responsible for supporting and conducting research to learn more about marihuana and to present this knowledge to the public.

The program of the NIMH Center for Studies of Narcotic and Drug Abuse includes surveys of how people get the drug, how widely students and others use it, and what physical and psychological effects different amounts and periods of use have upon people. With NIMH support, scientists are now studying the special drug qualities of marihauna and its physical effects.

The NIMH Addiction Research Center in Lexington, Kentucky, is developing studies to discover exactly how marihuana affects memory, perception (or awareness), mood, and physical movement. Other studies are planned to learn more about the drug's long-range effects on the body and mind.

AMPHETAMINES AND BARBITURATES
THE UP AND DOWN DRUGS

• **Amphetamines, which first became available for medical use in the 1930's, are stimulants to the central nervous system and are best known for their ability to combat fatigue and sleepiness. They are also sometimes used to curb appetite in medically supervised weight-reduction programs. The most commonly used stimulants are amphetamine (Benzedrine), dextroamphetamine (Dexedrine), and methamphetamine (Methedrine). Slang terms for these drugs include "pep pills," "bennies," and "speed."**

How do these drugs affect mood?

When properly prescribed by a physician, moderate doses can check fatigue and produce feelings of alertness, self-confidence, and well-being. In some people, this is followed by a letdown feeling or depression hangover. Heavier doses cause jitteriness, irritability, unclear speech, and tension. People on very large doses of amphetamines appear withdrawn, with their emotions dulled. They seem unable to organize their thinking.

What are the physical effects?

Stimulant drugs increase the heart rate; raise the blood pressure; cause palpitations (throbbing heart and rapid breathing); dilate the pupils; and cause dry mouth, sweating, headache, diarrhea, and pallor. They also depress the appetite.

How do these stimulants work?

Scientists have found that in the body these drugs stimulate the release of norepinephrine (a substance stored in nerve endings) and concentrate it in the higher centers of the brain. This speeds up the action of the heart and the metabolic process through which the body converts food into the chemicals it needs.

What are the medical uses?

Amphetamines were first used to treat colds, because they shrink the nasal membranes and can give temporary relief for "stuffy" heads. More effective drugs with fewer side effects are now used for this purpose. Stimulants are now mainly prescribed for narcolepsy (over-

whelming attacks of sleep), depression, and weight control. Use of these drugs as appetite depressants or for any other purposes is advisable only under the supervision of a physician, since stimulants can produce unwanted reactions. Doctors also prescribe these drugs for fliers, astronauts, and others who can use them as medically directed to ward off fatigue during dangerous and prolonged tasks.

Are stimulants misused?

About 20 percent of all medical prescriptions for mood-affecting drugs involve stimulants, according to a national survey. The drug industry produces enough each year to provide each American with 25 doses of these drugs. The Food and Drug Administration reports that about half of this supply enters illegal channels, for nonprescribed use. Black-market laboratories also produce stimulants, which are easily obtained from illegal sources.

All kinds of people abuse drugs —from the middle-aged businessman or housewife to students, athletes, and truck drivers. Recent government surveys show that young people are becoming the greatest abusers of these drugs. Drivers take them to stay awake on long trips, students take them while cramming for exams, and athletes take them, although sporting associations have banned their use. Some try them for a temporary kick. Some abusers reach a point where they need both stimulant and sedative drugs to get a chemical "up" and a chemical "down."

The stimulant drugs are generally swallowed as pills, but can be taken in liquid form by injection into a vein at regular time intervals. This is a dangerous practice known among abusers as "speeding."

Are these stimulants addicting?

Benzedrine, Dexedrine, and other stimulant drugs do not produce physical dependence as do the narcotics. Although the body does not become physically dependent on their continued use, it does develop a tolerance to these drugs so that larger and larger doses are required to feel the effects.

There is another kind of dependence medical authorities note in connection with the abuse of stimulants. They call it psychological dependence, meaning that a practice can become a habit for mental or emotional reasons, with the person getting used to and turning to the drug for its effects.

How dangerous are stimulant drugs?

These drugs can drive a person to do things beyond his physical endurance that leave him exhausted. Heavy doses may cause a temporary toxic psychosis (mental derangement) which requires hospitalization. This is usually accompanied by auditory and visual hallucinations. Abruptly withdrawing the drug from the heavy abuser can result in a deep and suicidal depression.

Long-term heavy users of the amphetamines are usually irritable and unstable and, like other heavy drug users, they show varying degrees of social, intellectual, and emotional breakdown.

Dangers from injecting "speed" (methamphetamine) into the vein include serum hepatitis, abcesses, and even death in the case of unaccustomed high doses. Injection of "speed" causes abnormal heart rates and may result in serious psychotic states and long-term personality disorders.

What are sedatives?

The sedatives belong to a large family of drugs manufactured for medical purposes to relax the central nervous system. Of these, the best known are the barbiturates, made from barbituric acid, which was first produced in 1846.

Barbiturates range from the short-acting, fast-starting pentobarbital sodium (Nembutal) and secobarbital sodium (Seconal) to the long-acting, slow-starting phenobarbital (Luminal), amobarbital (Amytal), and butabarbital (Butisol). The short-acting preparations are the ones most commonly abused. The slang terms for these include "barbs" and "goof balls."

How widely are they used?

Recent surveys show that, of all the prescriptions doctors write for mood-affecting drugs, one in four is for a barbiturate.

Probably an equally large supply of these drugs is obtained illegally, without prescription.

What are their medical uses?

Doctors prescribe sedatives widely to treat high blood pressure, epilepsy, and insomnia; to diagnose and treat mental illness; and to relax patients before and during surgery. Alone or together with other drugs, they are prescribed for many types of illnesses and conditions.

What are their effects?

Taken in normal, medically supervised doses, barbiturates mildly depress the action of the nerves, skeletal muscles, and the heart muscle. They slow down the heart rate and breathing, and lower the blood pressure.

But in higher doses, the effects resemble drunkenness: confusion, slurred speech, and staggering. The ability to think, to concentrate, and to work is impaired, and emotional control is weakened. Users may become irritable, angry, and combative. Finally, they may fall into deep sleep.

Is barbiturate use dangerous?

Authorities consider the barbiturates highly dangerous when taken without medical advice and prescription. Because doctors commonly prescribe these drugs, many people mistakenly consider them safe to use freely and as they choose. They are not. Overdose can cause death.

Barbiturates distort how people see things and slow down their reactions and responses. They are an important cause of automobile accidents, especially when taken together with alcohol. Barbiturates tend to heighten the effects of alcohol.

Users may react to the drug more strongly at one time than at another. They may become confused about how many pills they have taken and die of an accidental overdose. Barbiturates are a leading cause of accidental poison deaths in the United States. They are also one of the main means people use to commit suicide.

Are barbiturates addicting?

Yes. These drugs are physically addicting. Some experts consider barbiturate addiction more difficult to cure than a narcotic dependency. The body needs increasingly higher doses to feel their effects. If the drug is withdrawn abruptly, the user suffers withdrawal sickness with cramps, nausea, delirium, and convulsions, and in some cases, sudden death. Therefore, withdrawal should take place in a hospital over a period of several weeks on gradually reduced dosages. It takes several months for the body to return to normal.

What are the legal controls?

The Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs in the Department of Justice regulates stimulant and depressant drugs. Regulations provide for a strict accounting of all supplies of drugs by the manufacturer, distributor, and seller, and restrict the user to five refills of any one prescription. This means that these drugs can be had legally only through a doctor. Illicit manufacturing, distributing, dispensing, and possession of stimulants and depressants with intent to sell can bring a fine of up to $10,000 and a prison sentence of up to five years. Persons over 18 convicted of selling these drugs to persons under 21 can be fined $15,000 and receive 10 years in jail. Second and subsequent sales of these drugs to minors may yield a fine of $20,000 and 15 years in jail. Illegal possession without intent to sell can bring a fine of $1,000 and/or imprisonment for one year. State laws also control illicit use of these drugs.

What research is being done?

The National Institute of Mental Health is the federal agency primarily responsible for research on drug addiction and abuse. It is conducting extensive animal research to uncover the underlying action of the up-and-down drugs and to try to find out how psychological or physical dependence develops. It is searching for new drugs and techniques to treat overuse and dependence on the amphetamines and the barbiturates. Some investigators are developing new tests to detect these drugs in the body.

In addition, the NIMH is supporting a number of surveys to determine the use of these drugs by various population groups. Research investigators are trying in particular to learn how young people become involved in drug abuse and what can be done to help prevent this.

Misuse of Drugs

WHEREAS, The misuse of the many drugs such as the amphetamines, barbiturates, tranquilizers and the misuse of the so-called "harmful substances" such as glue and other similar aromatic products, remains a continuing problem; and

WHEREAS, Juvenile drug arrests have increased tremendously in the past several years; therefore be it

Resolved, That the dangers of misusing and the advantages of correctly using drugs should be taught to all children; and therefore be it further

Resolved, That such education should be a continuing important part of the total curriculum of Health Education.

—A resolution adopted by the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the NEA and the American Medical Association, 1967.

WHAT IS LSD?

• **A powerful man-made chemical,** D-lysergic acid diethylamide, generally called LSD, was first developed in 1938 from one of the ergot alkaloids. Ergot is a fungus that grows as a rust on rye and other cereals. LSD is so powerful that a single ounce is enough to provide 300,000 average doses.

Legally classified as a hallucinogen—a mind-affecting drug—LSD is noted mainly for producing strong and bizarre mental reactions in people, and striking distortions in their physical senses, in what and how they see, touch, smell, and hear. Except for government-approved use for research, the drug is illegal in the United States. Yet it is unlawfully produced in makeshift laboratories, and many people, including up to 7 percent of the students on some campuses, have taken it.

Other less known but powerful hallucinogens or psychedelic (mind-manifesting) drugs include peyote, mescaline, psilocybin, DMT, and STP.

Why do people take LSD?

Reasons given by users for taking LSD include: "curiosity," "for kicks," "to understand myself better," or a quest for religious or philosophical insights. At various times in history, substances as diverse as alcohol, ether, opium, and nitrous oxide (so-called laughing gas) have also been claimed capable of providing an easy and instant path to wisdom, or to religious or philosophical insights. Today these "consciousness expanders" of an earlier day are regarded as merely commonplace substances without any mystical properties whatever.

Recent surveys and hospital reports show that the drug's popularity may be dropping, at least in some areas of the country, as its potential ill effects become better known.

What are its physical effects?

An average dose of LSD, amounting to a speck, has an effect that usually lasts from about 8 to 10 hours. Users take it in capsule form or in a sugar cube, cracker, or cookie, or they can lick it off a stamp or other object impregnated with the drug. It increases the pulse and heart rate. It also causes a rise in blood pressure and temperature, dilated eye pupils, shaking of the hands and feet, cold sweaty palms, a flushed face or paleness, shivering, chills with goose pimples, irregular breathing, nausea, and loss of appetite.

The drug is not physically addicting in the way that narcotics are. That is, the body does not develop a physical need for LSD or physical sickness when it is withdrawn.

What are its psychological effects?

People who use LSD say that it has a number of effects. The first effects, they indicate, are likely to be sudden changes in their physical senses. Walls may appear to move; colors seem stronger and more brilliant. Users are likely to "see" unusual patterns unfolding before them. Flat objects seem to stand out in three dimensions. Taste, smell, hearing, and touch seem more acute. One sensory impression may be translated or merged into another; for example, music may appear as a color, and colors may seem to have taste.

One of the most confusing yet common reactions among users is the feeling of two strong and opposite emotions at the same time—they can feel both happy and sad at once or relaxed and tense. Arms may feel both heavy and light at the same time.

Users also report a sensation of losing the normal feeling of boundaries between body and space. Sometimes they believe they can fly or float with ease.

Effects can be different at different times in the same individual. Researchers have found that even in carefully controlled studies responses to the drug cannot be predicted. For this reason, users refer to "good trips" or "bad trips" to describe their experiences.

Does the drug affect thinking?

Among LSD's other effects on the user is the loss of his sense of time. He doesn't know how much time is passing, but he does remain conscious. Scientists report that he can reason logically, up to a point, while undergoing the drug's effects. He usually remembers after the drug wears off much of what happened to him. He may, for example, have become fascinated with an object in the room, like a chair or a vase. On larger doses, he may feel mystical and report a sense of rebirth or new insights. But he is often unable to explain his experience to others. Many medical authorities feel that chronic or continued use of LSD changes values and impairs the user's powers of concentration and ability to think. This may lead to a tendency to drop out of society.

Does LSD increase creativity?

Some users believe that LSD can heighten their senses, and help to make them more creative. But studies of paintings, writings, and other works produced by drug users have failed to support this viewpoint. In many cases, works performed by people after they used LSD appeared to be noticeably poorer than before.

How does the drug act?

Just how LSD works in the body is not yet known. But it seems to affect the levels of certain chemicals in the brain and to produce changes in the brain's electrical activity.

Animal experiments with LSD suggest that the brain's normal filtering and screening-out process becomes blocked, causing the brain to become flooded with unselected sights and sounds.

Studies of chronic LSD users indicate that they continue to suffer from an overload of stimulation to their senses. Researchers believe this may explain the regular user's inability to think clearly and to concentrate on a goal.

Is LSD dangerous?

Recent reports from hospitals in areas where LSD is used without close medical supervision warn of definite dangers. These dangers include:

1. Panic. Because he cannot stop the drug's action, the user may get panicky and fear that he is losing his mind.

2. Paranoia. He may become increasingly suspicious, feeling that someone is trying to harm him or control his thinking. This feeling generally lasts 72 hours after the drug has worn off.

3. Recurrence. Days, weeks, or even months after the individual has stopped using LSD, the things he saw and felt while on the drug may recur and make him fear he is going insane.

4. Accidental death. Because the LSD user may feel that he can fly or float in the air, he may try to leap out of a high window or from other heights and fall to his death. Or he may drive or walk in front of a moving car because he thinks he can't be harmed.

Does LSD cause mental illness?

Reactions resulting from use of LSD range from great worry, panic, and deep depression to borderline and severe mental derangement. Medical experts point out that the overwhelming worries and fears that can accompany the LSD experience are sometimes disturbing enough to cause acute and even long-lasting mental illness.

Does LSD cause birth defects?

A number of investigators are studying the effects of LSD on chromosomes. These are the tiny threads of matter in the nucleus of every cell that carry genetic or hereditary information and guide reproduction. Several scientists have reported that the drug causes chromosomal damage or changes when it is added to a tissue culture of white blood cells. Others report that the chromosomes of individuals who presumably have taken LSD show unusual breaks. They warn that this may possibly cause abnormalities in the offspring of LSD users.

Some researchers have reported fetal damage when LSD was given to pregnant rats and mice, and others have described human birth defects in newborns whose mothers said they took LSD.

No conclusive or direct link has yet been found between LSD and chromosomal breaks, nor has it been found that such breaks cause birth defects. Some changes in the cells are temporary and not permanent. But the preliminary evidence is arousing the concern of scientists.

Until further research throws more light on the question, medical authorities warn that the drug must be considered a definite risk, and women of child-bearing age are particularly advised not to use the drug.

Are there special hazards for young users?

The strong sensations and clash of moods the drug causes can be frightening, even for a mature person. For young people who are still undergoing emotional development and who seek a realistic hold on ways of solving problems and ways of living, the effects of LSD can be

even more frightening and confusing. The growing brain is more vulnerable than the adult brain to all mind-altering drugs.

Does LSD have medical uses?

The drug has been tested widely as a possible treatment for mental and emotional illnesses, and for alcoholism. In studies so far, it has failed to help the severely ill. But under controlled conditions, neurotics and alcoholics have made some improvement, according to investigators. The work is not complete, but follow-up studies indicate that these improvements are not always lasting.

The drug is a valuable tool in biomedical research, but its therapeutic value may be limited to special cases.

How does the law view LSD?

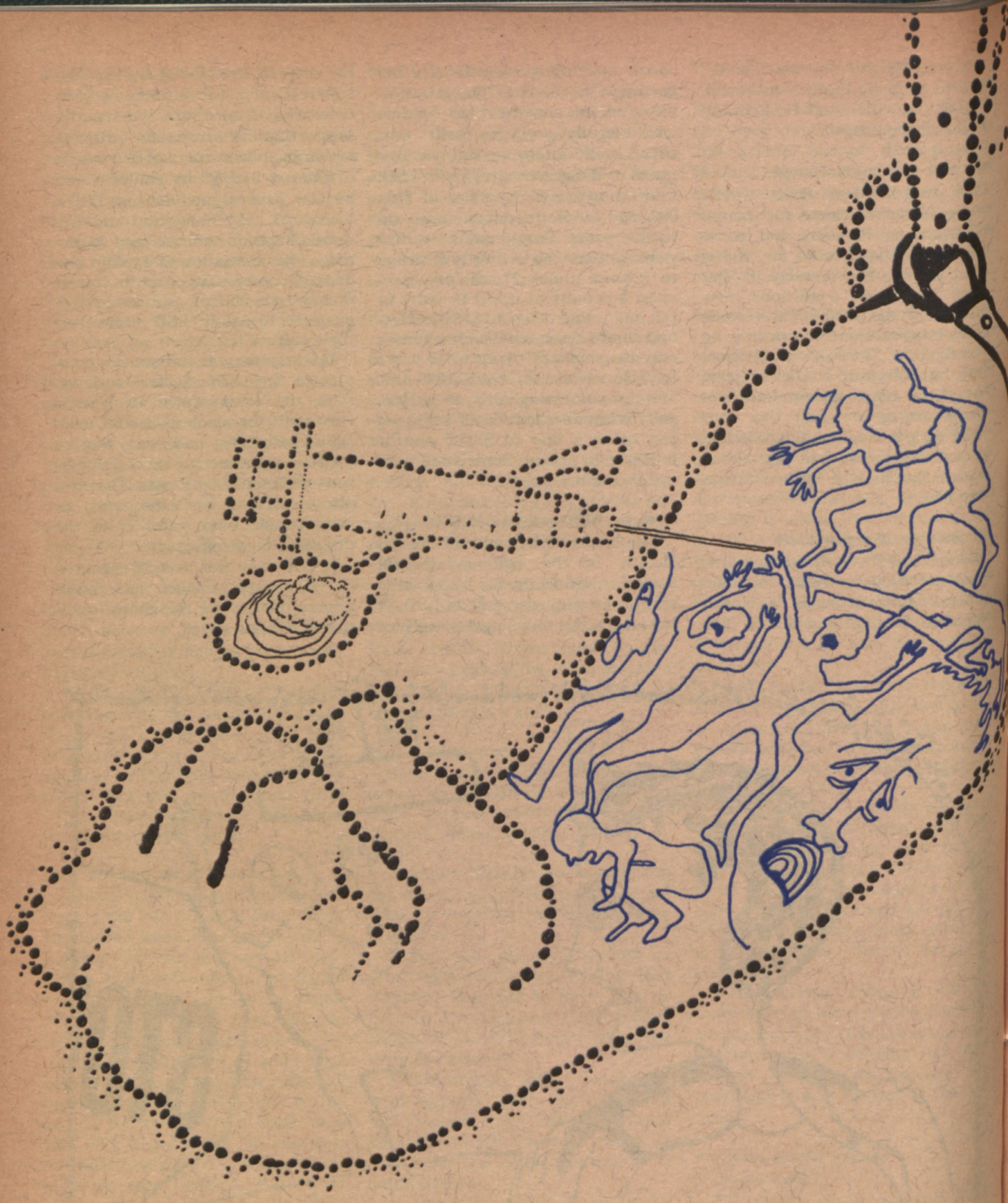
Because LSD is a dangerous drug when not used for research under medical supervision, it is closely regulated by the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs, Department of Justice. The law provides strict penalties for anyone who illegally produces, sells, possesses with intent to sell, or disposes of dangerous drugs like LSD. Conviction can bring a fine of $10,000 and/or imprisonment for up to five years. For persons over 18 years of age who sell or give drugs to anyone under 21, the law provides a penalty of up to 10 years in jail and a fine of up to $15,000. Second and subsequent such offenses may be penalized by up to 15 years imprisonment and/or a $20,000 fine. Merely possessing this drug illegally without intention of selling it can bring a fine of $1,000 and/or one year in prison. Some state laws are even more severe.

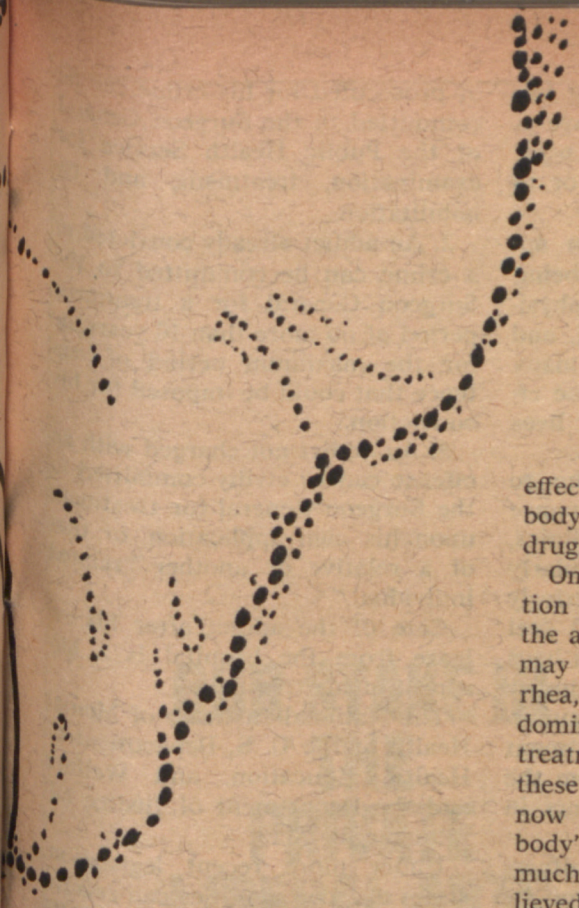
What are NIMH activities in LSD?

The National Institute of Mental Health is the primary federal agency responsible for supporting and overseeing research on LSD. It possesses the only legal supply of the drug in the United States. The NIMH Center for Studies of Narcotic and Drug Abuse is currently supporting 58 research projects which include surveys of the extent of the use of LSD by students and by the general population; LSD's biological, psychological, and genetic effects in animals and in humans; basic studies to explain the drug's action and to chart its course through the body; and long-range projects to study LSD users and their culture.

Investigators are about to complete a series of studies to determine the value of the drug as a treatment for alcoholism and emotional problems, and as a way to provide some mental relief for persons with terminal illness. They are also searching for new ways to treat people who suffer from the drug's bad side effects.

Research in this area is expected to grow until science has found more answers to the many questions LSD has raised.





WHAT ARE NARCOTIC DRUGS?

• **The term narcotic refers, generally,** to opium and pain-killing drugs made from opium, such as heroin, morphine, paregoric, and codeine. These and other opiates are obtained from the juice of the poppy fruit. Several synthetic drugs, such as Demerol and Dolophine, are also classed as narcotics. Opiates are widely used in medicine as pain killers. Cocaine, made from coca leaves, and marihuana, are classified legally but not chemically as narcotic drugs.

Since heroin appears to be the narcotic used by most addicts today, the following questions and answers deal mainly with heroin.

What is narcotic addiction?

When the abuser of a narcotic gets "hooked"—meaning addicted—his body requires repeated and larger doses of the drug. Once the habit starts, larger and larger doses are required to get the same effects. This happens because the body develops a tolerance for the drug.

One of the signs of heroin addiction is withdrawal sickness. When the addict stops using the drug, he may sweat, shake, get chills, diarrhea, nausea, and suffer sharp abdominal and leg cramps. Modern treatments help the addict through these withdrawal stages. Science now has new evidence that the body's physical addiction may last much longer than previously believed.

There is another kind of drug dependence connected with the use of narcotics. This is known as psychological dependence. That is, taking the drug also becomes a habit for emotional reasons. For example, the addict comes to depend on the drug as a way to escape facing life.

Narcotic use can become even more of an escape than expected, because large or unexpectedly pure doses can—and not uncommonly do—result in death.

What is the effect of heroin?

Typically, the first emotional reaction to heroin is reduction of tension, easing of fears, and relief from worry. Feeling "high" may be followed by a period of inactivity bordering on stupor.

Heroin, which is usually mixed into a liquid solution and injected into a vein, appears to dull the edges of reality. Addicts have reported that heroin "makes my troubles roll off my mind," and "makes me feel more sure of myself."

The drug depresses certain areas of the brain, and may reduce hunger, thirst, and the sex drive. Because addicts do not usually feel hungry, their hospital care may include treatment for malnutrition. The drug may also reduce feelings of pain.

Withdrawal symptoms appear in the addicted person about 18 hours after the drug has been discontinued.

In general, many factors influence the effects of the drug. These include the user's personality, the size and frequency of dose, and how the drug is taken.

Who takes narcotics?

Studies by the U.S. Public Health Service show that heroin addiction today is found chiefly among young men of minority groups in ghetto areas. Of the more than 60,000 known addicts listed by the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs, more than half live in New York State—and most of these in New York City. Recent figures show that more than half of the addicts are under 30 years of age.

Narcotic addiction in the United States is not limited to the heroin users. Some middle-aged and older people who take narcotic drugs regularly to relieve pain can also become addicted. So do some people who can get drugs easily, such as doctors, nurses, and druggists. Studies show that this type of addict has personality and emotional difficulties not much different from other regular narcotic users.

What is the life of an addict like?

Many addicts admit that, once on drugs, getting a continued supply becomes the main object of their lives. Concentration on getting drugs frequently prevents the addict from continuing either his education or his job. His health is often bad. He may be sick one day from the effects of withdrawal and sick the next from an overdose. Statistics indicate the life span of the drug dependent individual may be drastically shortened. He is usually in trouble with his family and almost always in trouble with the law.

Does addiction lead to crime?

Some studies suggest that many of the known narcotic addicts have

had some trouble with the law before they became addicted. Once addicted, they may become even more involved with crime because it costs so much to support the heroin habit. For example, an addict may have to spend as much as $75 or $100 to buy his day's supply of heroin.

Most authorities agree that the addict's involvement with crime is not a direct effect of the drug itself, but turning to crime is usually the only way he has of getting that much money. His crimes are nearly always thefts or other crimes against property, and not often crimes of passion or violence.

What are the legal penalties?

The Harrison Act of 1914, which provides that illegal possession of narcotics is punishable by fines and/or imprisonment, established federal penalties for illegal narcotics usage. Sentences can range from 2 to 10 years for the first offense, 5 to 20 years for the second, and 10 to 20 years for further offenses.

Illegal sale of narcotics can mean a fine of $20,000 and a sentence of 5 to 20 years for the first offense, and 10 to 40 years for further offenses. A person who sells narcotics to someone under 18 is refused parole and probation, even for the first offense. If the drug is heroin, he can be sentenced to life imprisonment or to death.

The Harrison Act has served as a model for most state laws, and both federal and state judges have generally imposed severe sentences for narcotics violations.

What is the medical view of addiction?

Medical authorities say that the addict is a sick person. He needs treatment for his physical addiction and withdrawal sickness. Then, he needs help to keep from going back to drug use after his withdrawal.

The most difficult part of an addict's treatment comes after he is out of the hospital. The doctors can help get him off the drug and help to restore his health, but it is harder to keep him from picking up the habit again, for many reasons. Drug taking may have become his way of life, including the friends he has and the kind of job he can get. He may not have a healthy enough personality to want to make a fresh start in life or to enjoy normal pleasures.

A number of rehabilitation approaches to the problems are being tested. Rehabilitation means physical, mental, emotional, social, and vocational rebuilding. With many addicts, it can take all of these efforts combined to keep their lives from being wasted.

One experimental technique to help addicts involves maintenance treatment in community clinics, where the addict can go regularly to take a drug that effectively blocks the "high" he would feel from his heroin. Addicts who have stayed off the drug for a number of years report that close supervision and continued treatment once they returned home from the hospital were the main factors in their rehabilitation.

In a New York City halfway house, a self-help program run by former addicts is being tried as a way to help people break the drug habit. One of the features of Daytop Village is the "no nonsense" treatment the new patients get from the senior members of the house. They hold frank and open group discussions several times a week, and gain status and privileges only by hard work, honesty, and staying off drugs. The treatment program lasts a year.

Because the rebuilding of a life can require many services and special programs, this chance for addicts was very limited in the past. Now a new law—the Narcotic Addict Rehabilitation Act of 1966—gives certain addicts a choice of treatment instead of imprisonment, and if they are not charged with a crime, the right to receive treatment instead of neglect. The law also provides for the first time that a complete range of rehabilitation services will be made available to addicts in their own home communities.

What is the Narcotic Addict Rehabilitation Act of 1966?

The Act provides that:

1. An addict charged with a nonviolent federal offense who elects to be committed for treatment instead of prosecuted for his crime can be committed to the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service for examination, treatment, and rehabilitation.

2. An addict already convicted of a crime can be committed to the Surgeon General for a treatment period of no more than 10 years, or for the maximum period of sentence that could be imposed for his conviction.

3. An addict not charged with an offense can be civilly committed to the Surgeon General for treatment upon his own application, or that of a relative or another "related individual."

Care of the addict after his release from the hospital is a key aspect of his treatment.

The National Institute of Mental Health of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Department of Justice administer the Act.

Under more recent legislation, states and communities can receive federal support through the NIMH for specialized training programs, and for the construction, staffing, and operation of new addiction treatment facilities on a joint federal-state basis.

What is being done to learn more about addiction?

The National Institute of Mental Health operates Clinical Research Centers at Lexington, Kentucky, and Fort Worth, Texas. Scientists at the centers do research on patterns of drug usage, on effects of drug use, and on antidotes for narcotic addiction. These centers were formerly Public Health Service hospitals for addicts and will treat addicts under the new Act until community hospital facilities are available.

At the Lexington center, Institute scientists are working with comparatively new drugs, cyclazocine and naloxone. Early clinical trials suggest that regular doses of these drugs can help prevent heroin relapse by decreasing the addict's desire for heroin.

In addition, the NIMH Center for Studies of Narcotic and Drug Abuse supports research, training, and services dealing with problems of addiction. •

OUR STAKE IN THE PRIVATE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

ARDEN K. SMITH, *consultant in higher education. Davis-MacConnell-Ralston, Inc., Stanford Professional Center, Palo Alto, California.*

• **If you, as an educator, are concerned about taxpayer revolts** and if you, as a taxpayer, are concerned about how high your own taxes are, then you have a stake in private higher education. Since private colleges and universities are largely supported by tuition fees, endowments, and private gifts, they do not compete with public institutions for that much-sought-after commodity, the tax dollar.

One shudders at the thought of the probable effect on our tax structure and on our system of higher education if all private colleges and universities were suddenly forced to close or to become public institutions.

In the 1966-67 academic year, for example, the 49 institutions that make up the Association of Independent California Colleges and Universities granted more than 18,000 degrees and enrolled more than 87,000 students. In the process of doing this, they spent almost $210 million on salaries and other operating expenses, not including sponsored research, auxiliary operations, or capital outlay. Furthermore, if educational costs continue to increase at the same rate that they have in the past decade, the $210 million expense figure will grow to over $650 million by 1978.

Whether the American public will be able and willing to pay increasingly large sums for private higher education is open to serious question.

The small liberal arts colleges have a kind of choice and a type of freedom of action all too often unavailable at public colleges and universities. This is not to imply that public institutions lack academic freedom, but rather to point out that private institutions—and most particularly small liberal arts colleges—are responsible only to their own boards of trustees, not to a state board of trustees, a governor, or a state legislature.

The private college may combine both a religious and an educational experience; it may be highly experimental; it may choose as its clientele the sons and daughters of sharecroppers in a culturally impoverished region or, instead, concentrate on offbeat students with an artistic bent or on those of unusually keen intellect.

In the small liberal arts college, with its close contact among teachers representing the various disciplines and its typically informal, friendly atmosphere, a chance encounter in a corridor or a few words in a faculty lounge may take the place of many hours in formal all-campus meetings at a larger institution or at the state capitol.

Although informal operations can have their own built-in problems, they nonetheless may allow the small college to move quickly in order to take advantage of a new idea or a changed set of circumstances. And it is in the realms of new ideas, freedom of action, and a fresh approach to curricular problems that the liberal arts college has so often led the way. (This does not discount the pioneering efforts of some large institutions—Penn State, for example, or Purdue.)

Thus, while research professors at major universities lectured to their classes on the importance of audiovisual aids in the classroom, Oklahoma Christian College installed an autotutorial carrel for each student, and Stephens College in Missouri pioneered in closed-circuit, instructional television as a basic teaching tool.

While state colleges were growing into universities and state universities were learning to count their students in units of 10,000, Vermont's Goddard College decided to split itself into two campuses partly because it felt that with 350 students it was too large for its purposes.

While colleges and universities across the land initiated countless new graduate programs, MacMurray College in Jacksonville, Illinois, decided to concentrate on what it felt it could do best—undergraduate education—and dropped its graduate program. Years ago, Antioch College in Ohio began to require that all students spend a large portion of their college careers off campus, engaged in a variety of work experiences; and later, to allow—indeed, encourage—students to gain academic credit and to accelerate their college careers through a broad-scale testing program. Innovations such as these have had their influence on undergraduate education.

The small private college is not the only part of higher education that is in financial difficulty. The Association of American Universities has warned: "American higher education is experiencing critical and widespread financial pressures. Virtually every type of college and university faces a widening gap between available income and the level of expenditures required to undertake needed expansions or improvements—or even, in many cases, to sustain normal operations."

Cornell, Princeton, and Yale, among others, are operating at a deficit; Stanford University, according to its "best forecasts," foresees a deficit of some $2 to $7 million per year by the early 1970's, and between $4 to $21 million per year by 1978.

The major thrusts of large private universities toward research, large-scale projects, and graduate education differ from those of the small liberal arts colleges, which emphasize teaching and undergraduate education. Nevertheless, there has been a striking financial parallel over the past decade between representative institutions within these two groups.

A recent study shows that eight small private colleges with an average enrollment of approximately 600 have achieved the highly desired accreditation and have exhibited their vitality by doubling both their faculty salaries and their enrollments while increasing their average percentage of faculty holding the doctorate by almost 30 percent. However, despite increasing their endowments by at least a quarter of a million dollars each and instituting certain instructional economies, they have been unable to keep costs down or even in line with the economy as a whole.

Total instructional costs per student at these small undergraduate colleges, as at leading large private universities, such as Chicago, Princeton, and Vanderbilt, have increased by roughly 100 percent over the past decade, while the Economy-Wide Cost Index has increased by only 20 percent.

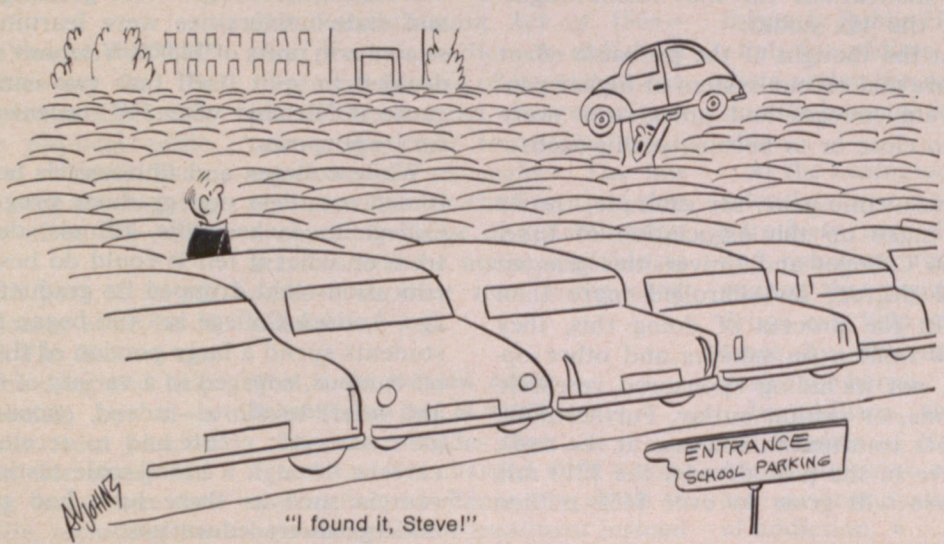
How long this trend can go on is an open question. To a certain extent, the expenses at institutions of higher education must continue to outpace the general economy, in order both to maintain the necessary upward adjustments in faculty salaries and to pay for the increasingly costly process of education. But if private institutions continue to need ever-larger amounts of money at the same time that the federal government is restructuring its programs for higher education and the major philanthropic foundations are turning their attention from higher education to other areas of need, America's private colleges and universities may literally price themselves out of the market.

One cannot, of course, believe that the large private institutions—the Harvards, the Columbias, the Yales, and the Stanfords—will ever be forced to close their doors. These institutions are too visible and too important, not only to higher education but also to the country as a whole, to be allowed to die. But the small private college—competing increasingly with low-cost public higher education; often geographically isolated, and relatively unknown—could collapse under the effort of trying to keep up with the "big boys."

Stanford's Lewis B. Mayhew, who has studied this problem in considerable detail, feels that the smaller liberal arts college (even though it has survived quite adverse circumstances over the years) is now entering into what he terms "the most difficult decade" it has ever had to confront.

Before we allow the small private liberal arts college to pass quietly from the higher education scene, let us ask ourselves about our individual and societal investments in this type of institution.

Faced by the impersonality of our technological age, an age in which the individual may become lost in the shuffle, we may increasingly need to turn to and to support the private liberal arts college. A small but vital part of our educational system, it has stimulated individuals to think and act as independent agents and to be, in effect, the means of their own self-renewal. With the personal attention it affords, the liberal arts college may be an indispensable champion of the cause of individual dignity and fulfillment that could point the way toward a meaningful new society. •



"I found it, Steve!"

SPECIAL JOURNAL FEATURE

Questions and Answers on Differentiated Staffing

FENWICK ENGLISH, *director of projects and of the differentiated staffing plan, Temple City (California) Unified School District.*

• **As many pioneering school districts around the** country are trying differentiated staffing, a variety of approaches to differentiation have developed. The models vary according to basic staff structure and the philosophy of the different schools and districts. My answers to the questions below are a reflection of the philosophical position of one district, the Temple City (California) Unified School District, and its teachers; they do not necessarily reflect professional consensus.

The Temple City plan, the result of an 18-month study by the staff and administration financed by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, went into effect at two Temple City schools last year.

What does differentiated staffing mean? Is there one definition?

To differentiate a teaching staff means to separate by different roles. There is no set definition of a differentiated staff, since at this time many models, with a variety of bases, are being proposed, developed, and tried.

What is the purpose of differentiated staffing?

The basic purpose of differentiated staffing is to provide a more individualized program. Differentiated staffing makes it possible to make maximum use of teacher talent. Although all teachers are not equal, the tendency has been to pretend that they are—to say, "A teacher is a teacher." Organizationally, this has led to inefficiency in using human resources. Differentiated staffing corrects this by assigning teachers on the basis of matching their various combinations and degrees of talent to children's needs.

Differentiated staffing serves a further purpose by creating an organizational incentive system that makes teaching a career and permits teachers to advance as *teachers* rather than having to move out of teaching into administration in order to progress.

What are the essential ingredients of a plan for a differentiated staff?

These may vary for different models. The Temple City plan is based on the following principles:

1. Differentiated staffing is a means of producing more relevant student learning.
2. Teaching must be the primary function of all teachers.
3. Teachers must become formal professional partners with administrators in the decision-making process.
4. Teachers must be relieved of many nonprofessional functions now required of them.
5. Teachers must perform the self-disciplining or regulating activities of their own profession.
6. Organizational flexibility must be created through the use of flexible scheduling.
7. New kinds of teacher in-service and preservice programs need to be developed to prepare teachers to be able to function in different roles.
8. The advanced positions in the teacher hierarchy are service rather than supervisory positions.
9. Some teachers should earn more than school administrators.

Can roles be differentiated? Vertically? Horizontally?

Teaching roles can be differentiated just as other

professional roles can be. Teachers are already familiar with a number of means of differentiation. Most of these bring about vertical differentiation, using additional responsibilities as the basis for upgrading assignments. This kind of differentiation may be in the form of extended contractual periods or of extra pay for such services as developing curriculums, acting as leader of a teaching team, or performing a special function, like coaching football or directing the band.

How will levels of competence and responsibility be determined?

The first step is to develop a set of generic models that separate teacher roles. These models can then be tailored to the needs of individual schools by the teachers, who are the best judges of what services are relevant to their problems. If the advanced roles are being created in order to help classroom teachers upgrade their teaching, the teachers should be the ones to say what help they need.

Who will evaluate the various levels of competence?

Evaluation is a professional responsibility and should be practiced by the professional teacher. Competence is measured in terms of the degree to which the staff receives the services it has determined it needs.

Some will question whether good teacher relationships can prevail when teachers evaluate each other. The Temple City plan, however, assumes the responsibility of teachers, as competent, mature adults, to engage in appraisal of each other.

Will differentiated staffing help teachers to do a better job?

Yes, if teachers have defined the help they need to do a better job, and if they are actually involved in the selection, evaluation, and retention of their colleagues. A differentiated staff will help create organizational self-renewal, for teachers in their new roles will feed into each school a steady stream of promising new ideas and practices to improve the quality of the instructional program. The use of auxiliary personnel will relieve teachers of many of the nonprofessional tasks that now consume much of their time and energy and will permit them to concentrate on the instructional program.

Will it merely introduce a new administrative level?

Not if teaching remains the prime function and if *all* personnel have regular teaching responsibilities. A differentiated staff in which differentiation is based on additional responsibilities cannot very well be superimposed upon the traditional school structure where teachers are with children all day long. Some type of flexible scheduling will allow all teachers to have regular teaching duties and will permit those with additional responsibilities to meet with more children than at the present time. In this way, the talents of teachers are expanded rather than reduced as they advance. Teachers are not promoted away from children.

Where is it being tried? What models exist?

Prototypes of differentiated staffing have existed for some time. Most early models have used additional duties as the method of separating teacher roles beyond the staff level. The models being developed now are more sophisticated and more formal, in that they involve a teacher hierarchy. As the profession gives more attention and thought to staff differentiation, far-reaching and perhaps more creative models will be conceptualized.

One model recently proposed by Bernard McKenna utilizes a five-level learning-task hierarchy, and identifies the teacher technologist; the liberal enlightener (analyzer of areas of knowledge considered important by the general population); the identifier of talents; the developer of talents; and the facilitator of attitude and interpersonal behavior development.

In another proposal, a daring and provocative one, James Hall conceives of a differentiated staff as an exemplar of ethnic balance and harmony for students to emulate.

Dwight W. Allen, dean of the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts, has proposed a model in which the teaching staff is divided into four levels of responsibility, as well as one in which separate schools would be organized vertically around a subject or discipline. Students would transfer from one school to another during the school day for various types of in-depth learning experiences. Teaching responsibilities would be delineated for each discipline within each school.

How can models for differentiated staffing be evaluated?

Differentiated staffing is not an end in itself but a means of improving learning, so the best way to evaluate a model is through the development of curriculums that can be measured in student outcomes. In the meanwhile, because schools cannot wait until this task is finished (if it could ever be considered finished), alternative models can be compared with each other. It can be assumed that any model that allows teacher talents and time to be used more effectively enhances learning, since the teacher is the key facilitator of the learning process.

What are the colleges doing about preparing teachers for differentiated staffing?

Few teacher preparatory institutions are graduating candidates who understand how to teach in a flexible school requiring team teaching, how to use auxiliary personnel effectively and delegate responsibilities to them, and how to engage in colleague evaluation or organizational decision making. Most colleges are still producing graduates who can function only in the traditional organizational patterns.

New training programs need to be initiated not only for teachers, but for school administrators as well. Differentiated staffing implies decentralized decision making; it removes the administrator from many unilateral decision-making situations and places him in a group-centered collegial environment. Traditional schools of administration with their accent on conventional organizational theory, which considers authority as the central criterion of controlling and motivating people, must retool with a more modern theory that is in harmony with the desire of teachers to be formally included in the decision-making process, and to be considered as mature, competent professionals. •

Enhancing Teaching as a Career

RONALD G. CORWIN, *principal investigator, NCTEPS Research Project on the Teacher Corps; associate professor of sociology, Ohio State University, Columbus.*

Our country faces the problem of finding more flexible ways to organize education for a rapidly changing society. One part of the problem is a structural lag in our school system. The current interest in creating more differentiated, specialized work roles within teaching can be viewed as a response to this lag.

In an otherwise highly specialized economy, teachers over the years have reluctantly assumed more and more responsibilities for a remarkable variety of new functions. And they have performed these functions without the benefit of adjustments that would have given them the support of the rest of the system.

Now, however, developments—which range from pressures to prepare increasing numbers of children for college to the deterioration of our inner-city schools—have made it clear that true individualized instruction is impossible as long as teachers have to cope, unaided, with a multitude of tasks and responsibilities.

Four specific, interrelated developments are largely responsible for the new division of labor, known as differentiated staffing, that is beginning to emerge. The knowledge explosion is the first (and in a sense the foremost) development. The structure of knowledge has become so complex that it can neither be comprehended nor treated as a whole. Indeed, in view of all the forces now known to influence education, it is fair to say that no one *occupation* will be sufficient in the schools of the future; teachers, social workers, nurses, psychologists, businessmen, and many other groups will need to collaborate more closely.

Second, as the primary condition under which society will grant professional status to a given occupation, individuals in that occupation must demonstrate that they have acquired specialized knowledge which other groups do not have. The current efforts to professionalize teaching, accordingly, have encouraged greater specialization of work roles—and in particular a form of specialization based on function and carrying broad authority for specialists to find the means necessary to fulfill given responsibilities.

Third, increasing bureaucratization has imposed many duties on teachers that have deflected them from their primary teaching functions. Differentiated staffing allows teachers to delegate work to people in other positions and, hence, provides a means of separating out bureaucratic duties.

Finally, technology is revolutionizing the self-contained classroom. This time the process is not only creating additional roles, but is providing the means by which teachers can escape traditional roles and begin to specialize.

Of course, greater differentiation and specialization will undoubtedly aggravate other problems, such as the problems of overlapping authority lines, competition among teachers, sharing authority over students, and coordinating and evaluating independent teachers and other professionals who will have to cooperate closely. Furthermore, as new administrative hierarchies evolve in response to these problems, the most specialized personnel may find themselves assuming more administrative duties and becoming increasingly removed from their student clientele. At least, however, such hierarchies may be controlled by teachers.

On the other side of the coin, children will be less subject to the dictates of a particular teacher. Also, specialization is likely to have welcome returns for the quality of teaching in general, and in particular it may help to increase the sense of commitment on the part of teachers who enter and remain in the profession.

Until now teachers have adamantly rejected anything that might increase status distinctions among themselves. Their attitude has probably resulted, at least in part, from a determination to maintain their cohesiveness in the face of administrative threats. But differentiated work roles can be arranged in such a way as to provide meaningful career ladders for teachers, which should result in more equitable rewards for those most committed to their work.

Career ladders may increase internal competition among teachers within a particular school, but they would circumvent the "dead end" quality of teaching as it is presently constituted, which seems to have prompted many teachers to leave the classroom. In addition to increasing commitment to teaching in general, career ladders could be used to increase commitment to specific *fields* within teaching. It soon will be possible to use promotion as a reward for teachers who have been effective in dealing with certain types of problems—working with disadvantaged children, for example—*without* requiring them to forsake their area of specialization. It is this characteristic, more than any other, that could transform teaching from a job into a career. •

Experiences with Differentiated Staffing

EDWARD W. BEAUBIER, *district superintendent, Fountain Valley (California) School District.*

• **Four key concepts that have become apparent** during the past three years are basic to the differential staffing patterns now in use in the Fountain Valley School District.

First, it is essential to establish clear-cut, measurable learning objectives for the youngsters to be served by the plan. These objectives make up the criteria for judging the success of a plan for reorganization.

Second, and of great importance, the honest involvement of teachers in decision making is crucial to the development of any program. Any changes that affect the role of the teacher need the involvement of that teacher in the decision-making process.

Third, if wise decisions are to be made with regard to teaching and learning, the staff that works directly with the youngsters to be served must make them. The school must have much more autonomy than is usually the case. This autonomy necessarily involves decentralized staffing. If the school psychologist, for example, is to be truly involved with the learning program, he must be made an integral part of the teaching staff that carries this responsibility.

Fourth, if teachers are to be effective decision makers, they need in-service education in group dynamics and human relations skills.

Under the Fountain Valley plan for staff differentiation, the school becomes a stage for learning and an operational center for the teachers' supporting staff. The 12 schools in Fountain Valley have reorganized the use of space so that every six or eight classrooms are clustered about a core room, called a learning center. This room houses diagnostic materials, electronic teaching devices, tape banks, test banks, science centers, libraries, reference and study areas, and resource materials. Each school has a primary (K-3), middle (3-5), and upper (5-8) learning center. Learning centers are so organized that several activities can be conducted simultaneously by different members of the teaching staff.

In the Fountain Valley plan, each person on the teaching staff performs a defined role.

The coordinating teacher is a carefully selected expert in curriculum, has in-depth knowledge of child growth and development, and an understanding of human relations skills. The coordinating teacher does not have students assigned directly to him. His primary task is to provide leadership for the six or eight classroom teachers in the teaching team.

The coordinating teacher is involved with learner diagnosis, selection of appropriate learning materials, and cooperative student evaluation. His activities may take place within an individual classroom or in the learning center. The majority of the coordinating teacher's time is spent in direct or indirect instruction with individuals or small or large groups of pupils. The type of instruction a pupil receives is based on a diagnosis that involves the professional judgments of the classroom teacher, the coordinating teacher, and the other members of the teaching team.

The services provided by the coordinating teacher require that he be available for daily conferences with classroom teachers to assist them with questions and problems concerning the diagnosis, prescription, and evaluation for each child. These conferences are held during recess, noon breaks, and before or after school. In addition, many schedules have been adjusted so that youngsters are dismissed at noon one day per week to provide a large block of planning time for the teaching team.

A committee composed of both teachers and administrators selects the coordinating teachers on the basis of in-depth classroom visitations, oral interviews, and recommendations from supervisors.

Because the coordinating teacher operates in a staff relationship with other members of the teaching team, peer relationships are crucial. Both verbal and written communicative skills are important if an effective teaching-planning program is to operate.

The learning analyst, a psychologist with a psychometric or counseling background, works with the classroom teacher, coordinating teacher, principal, and other special teachers. His primary responsibilities are to:

Conduct testing, placement, and referrals (if necessary) for the educable mentally retarded, educationally handicapped, and academically talented

Conduct research and develop ideas for curriculum design based upon learning theory

Field test materials and evaluation instruments in the classroom and learning center

Conduct in-service education for the total team regarding the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor problems of children who have learning difficulties

Obtain and disseminate information regarding work done in the schools.

Each learning center and its teaching team is staffed

with a *teacher aide* who works closely with the team to assist teachers in a noninstructional capacity. His function is to "free teachers to teach." This paid nonprofessional is responsible to the coordinating teacher, and all requests for his services are channeled through this team leader.

Another means of freeing the teacher to teach at Fountain Valley is having teacher assistants from the University of Southern California work in noninstructional areas. (They also complete student teaching requirements during a 12-month program.) "Work-study" college students and "work-experience" high school students also give noninstructional assistance to the teaching team.

Additional assistance comes through a community action program, in which over a thousand parent aides work as volunteers in service capacities once a week for four hours. Some fill requests from the individual school learning centers and classroom teachers by making visual materials, teaching devices, and instructional media. Some assist in the central library with such tasks as shelving books, filing catalog cards, checking books out, and circulating requested books to the learning centers. Others serve as health, welfare, and safety aides to assist the coordinator of health services with hearing tests and with immunization and safety programs.

To meet the needs and interests of individual children, the teachers in the learning centers require a centralized storehouse of ideas, materials, equipment, and personnel. In Fountain Valley, the Curriculum Materials Center serves as such a storehouse and also provides a laboratory where teachers can work with a staff of technicians and coordinators.

The Center provides for in-service programs directed by the local school district and universities, and for library services, "idea" booklets, and such audio-visual teaching aids as study prints, films and filmstrips, transparencies, tapes, and records.

Our ultimate goal in Fountain Valley is to fashion a system that will provide for its own continuous renewal. The educational team must not only deal with the process of change but, in addition, must answer the question of "change for what?" Our participation in the National Education Association's Center for the Study of Instruction will help to bring about further constructive rethinking of our program, curriculum development, staff training, analysis of data, and strategies for change.

Progress has to do with results—motives and intentions are the business of abstract thought. •

DONALD HAIR, *assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, Kansas City, Missouri, public schools.*

• **In September 1968, a differentiated staffing plan was** implemented in two schools in Kansas City, Missouri—Although this two-year experimental program will undoubtedly require considerable modification, it does initiate a patern of staffing that attempts to give teachers the chance to advance in status and salary and yet remain in teaching.

To establish this program, we examined the kinds of tasks to be performed in the operation of an elementary school or a junior high school. The next step was to determine the different job categories by grouping these tasks. In defining job classifications, we were careful to consider items such as the following:

Instructional tasks to be assigned to a particular job category

Responsibility for coordinating a level or an area

Responsibility for diagnosis of learning problems

Responsibility for prescribing materials and techniques of instruction

Special competencies required

Responsibility for preparation of materials

Opportunity for creativity

Length of the work day and/or work year.

We arrived at the following job classifications: coordinating instructor, senior instructor, instructor, associate instructor, intern, student teacher, paraprofessional, clerk. Certificated personnel fill all of the instructor categories.

To use the elementary school as an example, the following distribution of personnel has been provided: 3 coordinating instructors, 7 senior instructors, 18 instructors, 4 associate instructors, 4 interns, 8 student teachers, 8 paraprofessionals, and 3 clerks.

All four instructor classifications are involved in the instructional process. The descriptions that follow

are considerably abbreviated, but they do indicate some of the ways in which the classifications are differentiated.

The coordinating instructor coordinates the activities in a broad segment of the curriculum; supervises the ordering and distribution of instructional materials; teaches demonstration classes on occasion; investigates and initiates curriculum innovations; plans evaluation of his segment of the instructional program; plays a key role in the development and implementation of in-service education activities.

The senior instructor serves as a team leader; is responsible for scheduling both daily and long-range activities; exerts leadership in a subject field or a grade level; diagnoses and prescribes for needs of pupils; supervises training of student teachers.

The instructor participates on the team as a full-time teacher; is responsible for large-group presentations in his field of specialization; works with individual pupils and small groups of pupils in enrichment and development activities.

The associate instructor teaches part-time; participates in teaching as assigned by the senior instructor; participates in the implementation of plans and schedules developed by the team.

The intern contributes to the teaching team in his field of instruction; participates in teaching activities as defined by the coordinating instructor; follows a course of action planned with the college or university with which he is affiliated.

The student teacher observes and participates in teaching activities as prescribed by the senior instructor; follows activities consistent with the purposes of student teaching as agreed upon with the teacher training institution.

The paraprofessional, who is a full-time or part-time member of the staff, supervises movement of children; takes daily attendance; prepares instructional materials as directed; operates machines as required.

Every facet of a school district operation ought to contribute to the improvement of learning opportunities for boys and girls. This new pattern of staffing should help the Kansas City schools to reach that objective by attracting competent teachers in the first place; by retaining them; and by using differentiated assignments to make the best use of talent. It should help to attract and hold men teachers in the elementary schools.

The Kansas City plan requires no prescribed number of years of experience at one level for advancement to another classification. Teachers are protected by the continuing contract law of Missouri, but a senior instructor or a coordinating instructor has no guarantee that he will occupy that same position next year.

Problems are bound to arise with this new staffing plan, and it will take time for people to learn to function in new roles. However, if schools like these can help to provide more professional opportunities, a brighter future may be in prospect for the career teacher. •

Differentiating roles means assigning personnel in terms of training, interest, ability, aptitude, career goals, and the difficulty of tasks.

The differentiated staff idea provides a chance to structure a school faculty so that personnel are encouraged to proceed with their own professional training and development to prepare for increased responsibility and status with accompanying increases in compensation.

For now, differentiating teaching roles should remain highly experimental. Any shift to a new organization is bound to be fraught with problems and uncertainty. No school faculty can expect an easy transition from an established pattern to one where much is unknown. The risk of trying, however, should be taken.

The differentiated staff concept is clearly *not* another form of merit pay. It equates significance of responsibility, level of training, and experience with compensation. Different levels of responsibility for teachers are based on the nature of the teaching tasks and not on added administrative assignments.

—Roy A. Edelfelt, *executive secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA.*

The Way It Looks to a Classroom Teacher

CHARLES E. OLSON, *teacher of vocal music, Lawrence (Kansas) High School.*

• **I believe that Differentiated Teaching Assignments** (DTA) is a workable arrangement that, carefully tailored for individual situations, could allow many school systems to get the fullest benefit from their teachers' talents.

DTA could serve as a means of giving outstanding educators who are actually involved in the process of classroom education an earning power equal to or greater than that of supervisory or administrative personnel. Thus, under DTA, instead of having to turn to administration in order to advance financially, teachers who have the ability to provide excellent learning experiences for children as well as the ability to help less expert teachers could earn more money while remaining in teaching.

I do not believe that DTA is merely a back-door approach to merit pay. Under merit pay plans, certain teachers receive more pay than others whose responsibilities and work loads are the same. With DTA, on the other hand, teachers could conceivably receive more money as recompense for additional responsibility, longer working hours, and less vacation time.

Although a good DTA plan is not a plan for merit pay, *a school system adopting DTA needs to take precautions against its deteriorating into one.* To avoid the possibility of preferential treatment, the system should establish and observe detailed job descriptions. Teachers who are paid more must earn more. No DTA plan should guarantee that teachers in the upper levels of job classification will be in the same jobs the following year. The inclusion of teachers in committees charged with selecting and reevaluating upper-echelon teachers can be one safeguard against having DTA become merit pay.

I have asked myself if DTA, with its senior teachers or coordinating teachers, does not put emphasis on the personnel who are not teachers. I believe that the answer is no. The primary goal of DTA is to improve the quality of instruction by placing the most competent teachers in the most responsible positions.

One extremely attractive feature of DTA is that it allows all members of the teaching staff to have classroom contact. All members are able to keep abreast of current thinking and practices. I believe that having regularly scheduled classroom contacts will make coordinating instructors better organizers and better resource persons.

One of my gravest concerns about DTA is that a school system might inaugurate it without proper preparation. In order to preclude professional jealousies, a great deal of explanation of the reasons for changes in staffing and procedures should pave the way for DTA.

DTA would have to be adapted to fit each individual school system. Educational goals and philosophies would need redefinition. Then, after at least a year of intensive study, DTA would be negotiated through the local teachers association.

In a system contemplating the adoption of DTA the local teachers association should first form a committee of teachers and administrative staff to work with the school board to develop policies regarding such pressing problems as leave, working conditions, teacher competence, and salaries. DTA will not solve these problems. Indeed, if they are not solved before its adoption, DTA might aggravate them.

DTA is most workable in a school system that is willing to pay the classroom teacher a better than average salary. If DTA is used to upgrade only a few teachers' salaries and the rest are forgotten, it will not accomplish much in the way of change. For the school system that is properly geared, however, I believe that DTA has much to offer. •

Mr. Olson took part in the conference on differentiated staffing (see pages 60-61) sponsored by the Association of Classroom Teachers, NEA.

Association of Classroom Teachers Resolution 1968-25: Specialization and Differentiation in Teaching Assignments

ACT [an NEA department] recognizes the new roles and the growing diversity in teacher assignments and responsibilities created by the innovative developments in education. It therefore urges classroom teachers (a) to initiate a study to explore the differentiation in roles and responsibilities, (b) to identify the issues and problems involved, including salaries, as they relate to classroom teachers, and (c) to seek solutions that will continue to meet the needs of teachers and the children they serve.

ACT Viewpoints

In November 1968, the Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association devoted its annual Classroom Teachers National Study Conference to the topic "Differentiated Teaching Assignments for Classroom Teachers."

The final report of the conference will not be available until the latter part of April; however, ACT has prepared the following résumé of participants' views on the advantages and drawbacks of differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers, the unresolved issues, and the responsibilities of the professional associations with regard to differentiated teaching assignments.

Advantages of Differentiated Teaching Assignments for Classroom Teachers

Differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers appear to provide—through a program responsive to the interests, abilities, and needs of the individual learner—a more meaningful educational experience and a climate favorable to the development of each child to his potential.

By fostering good teaching techniques, such as flexible assignments, modular scheduling, matching of instructional resources with learners' needs, individualized learning experiences, and a clinical approach to meeting students' needs, differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers should provide effective education.

Differentiated teaching assignments should provide for more effective use of human resources by doing the following:

Recognizing the individual differences of teachers; allowing classroom teachers to assume responsibility and initiative commensurate with their interests, talents, and abilities; providing a climate that enables teachers to identify their personal strengths and weaknesses and to develop new areas of competence and interest; involving the teacher in decision making on curriculum planning, teaching methods, utilization of time, and development of relevant in-service education programs; establishing a climate that fosters creative involvement of staff and greater opportunity for learners; creating a team approach to education, based on the concept that the development, implementation, and evaluation of the total educational program is the ongoing responsibility of the entire staff and that this responsibility includes taking part in the initial selection, retention, and assignment of other team members.

Differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers should provide opportunity for interaction among all persons involved.

Drawbacks of Differentiated Teaching Assignments for Classroom Teachers

People who are committed to change sometimes have a tendency to move too quickly. In so doing, they may fail to involve all concerned—especially classroom teachers, the local association, and the community—and attempt to change classroom teachers without recognizing the need for comparable changes at other levels of the educational hierarchy. Differentiated staffing cannot succeed if the roles of administrators do not change at the same time that the roles of the classroom teachers change.

Allocated funds may be insufficient to do an adequate job of planning, implementing, and maintaining a satisfactory program of differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers.

In general, neither teachers nor administrators are prepared to operate—in terms of methods of instruction and administration—within the new framework required for differentiated teaching assignments.

Much of the current literature on differentiated staffing raises questions in the minds of classroom teachers that are not easily answered. Some articles, for example, imply that differentiated staffing is the answer to the current educational crisis, although investigation shows that many of the so-called successful programs are only in experimental stages—perhaps not even off the drawing board.

Other articles promote differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers on the basis of what it will do for classroom teachers rather than on the basis of its potential for improving the educational opportunities of students. One reads that differentiated teaching assignments will provide career incentives for classroom teachers, will attract and retain outstanding teachers in the profession, will give the "good" teacher an opportunity to stay in the classroom rather than to have to move into administration for advancement, and will bring added prestige to the teacher. Classroom teachers seriously question these claims and ask, "Where is the proof?"

Some articles contain statements about differentiated staffing that are contradictory or incompatible. A paper may claim that teachers will receive increased pay based on increased responsibility and elsewhere state that teachers will receive increased pay based on evaluation of their competence. (The latter concept is interpreted as a back-door approach to an old

issue—merit rating—and classroom teachers resist it. The former concept is more readily acceptable.)

Another document may state that a differentiated teaching plan does not create a new hierarchy within the educational system and then proceed to describe a pay system that implies that differentiated staffing does indeed create a new hierarchy.

Still another article may imply that teaching and the person who teaches are of paramount importance in education, but the accompanying salary schedule provides pay in reverse proportion to the time spent with students.

Teachers fear that a staffing pattern of differentiated teaching assignments may be used as a means of cutting school budgets by paying higher salaries to the few teachers who reach the top bracket (evidence indicates that usually these positions are limited in number) and lower salaries to the vast majority of teachers. This, in turn, raises the question: Is there any validity to the claim that differentiated staffing will help attract capable persons to the teaching profession?

Unresolved Issues

Is the actual teaching process as important as the planning and other supportive tasks related and essential to teaching? What are or will be the criteria for judging the relative importance of the various teaching roles?

Can differentiated staffing be accomplished only by establishing a new hierarchy? Is there not a system by which different personnel assume different roles at different times? Might not horizontal rather than only vertical movement for the teacher or a plan of rotating assignments be equally effective?

Is a good teacher necessarily a good coordinating teacher or a good curriculum planner or a good learning analyst? Might not one teacher be best equipped to be the coordinating teacher in one area but perform as a regular staff teacher in another area?

Will differentiated staffing foster greater solidarity among teachers, or will specialization and differentiation be a divisive factor?

If teaching is the primary function of the teacher, and since the teacher's status is related to his degree of remuneration, can any plan be successful if it is implemented on the basis of the hierarchy described in most differentiated staffing plans?

Are the various assignments in differentiated teaching so specialized that they fall automatically into a hierarchical pattern? Cannot certain tasks conceivably be performed by certain teachers under certain conditions but by other teachers under other conditions? If one accepts the premise that each individual has both strengths and weaknesses, does a hierarchical system maximize strengths and minimize weaknesses?

Responsibilities of the Professional Associations

The professional associations have both a right and an obligation to provide leadership in bringing about changes that will make education relevant to today's society. It follows, therefore, that the associations have important responsibilities if patterns of differentiated teaching assignments for classroom teachers are to be put to a test.

Perhaps the greatest responsibility falls on the local association. The local must—

Establish its right to negotiate for teachers on all matters related to staffing, assignments, transfer, curriculum, and teachers' salaries, so that it is assured of involvement in the development and implementation of any program of differentiated staffing.

Be ready and willing to serve as a partner in exploring new approaches to education, including a plan of differentiated teaching assignments.

Plan and implement a program designed to alert and motivate classroom teachers to become informed, to take the initiative in educational innovation, and to be full-fledged partners in any program designed to bring about changes in the local school system, but at the same time assume that all such programs will be experimental until such time as experience validates the worth of the innovation.

The state and national education associations and the state and national associations of classroom teachers must—

Accumulate data and serve as clearinghouses for information.

Make available a variety of models of differentiated staffing and a procedure for developing salary schedules.

Recommend a framework within which state and local associations can develop specific procedures.

Provide consultative service.

Reevaluate their positions on standards of certification; salary schedules; class size; and role definitions.

Become more directly involved in programs of teacher education and preparation by conducting comprehensive surveys of present programs, by establishing criteria for evaluation of these programs, and by proposing new directions.

Identify the need for state and national legislation and initiate legislative action that seems desirable. •

Cast Off the Bowline!

ALVIN P. LIERHEIMER, *director, Division of Teacher Education and Certification, New York State Education Department, Albany.*

• **Differentiated staffing and performance assessment** seem to this director of teacher education and certification to offer a chance to cast off the line that has kept the certification sloop circling its mooring for years. How disheartening it would be to tighten lines of this promising development through certification requirements and the copycat training programs that mimic those requirements in the colleges!

As schools have come to recognize the complexity and unmanageability of the traditional teaching assignment, they have developed numerous examples of variations in teaching roles. These examples, as well as logic itself, reinforce the need to identify behaviorally the roles that teachers and other personnel fulfill. But to determine whether the objectives of the differentiated roles are being met, we turn to performance assessment, a companion piece to differentiated teaching tasks. It is a necessary ingredient in the analysis of teaching roles and the demonstration of the need for both horizontal and vertical distinctions among teaching personnel.

As a school staff recognizes, defines, and fulfills differentiated roles, the students, the community, and the teachers themselves all benefit. Students profit if people specially qualified to meet their particular needs manage their learning. The community profits from a differentiation of teaching roles because new sources of talent can become available—persons with specialized aptitudes but without full preparation for teaching. School personnel gain job satisfaction in performing at a level and in a role in keeping with their desires and talents.

The very newness and flexibility implicit in the notion of differentiated staff make it imperative to permit the freest possible experimentation with the varied use of school personnel and at the same time to refine the techniques used to appraise their achievement. Both developments call for a reexamination and restatement of educational objectives.

The school and college working as a combine to prepare people to work with children must decide first of all what, in behavioral terms, they are trying to achieve and whether or not differentiating the staff will have an effect on their goal. Once the objectives have been agreed on, schools and colleges willing and able to try new approaches should be in a position to describe the nature of a differentiated staff and the best way to prepare for its development.

At present, the education profession can see more problems than solutions on the horizon. For example, if independent study for students promotes enterprise and maturity, how do you prepare teachers to foster individualized learning? How are technological and curricular developments articulated for maximum educational benefit? What are the characteristics of a teacher who can promote learning in ghetto schools? What are alternate routes to teaching and related new careers for persons with demonstrated sensitivity and competence but without formal preparation? In light of administrative complexities and the depersonalization inherent in technology, how can persons who work with children respond more creatively to their needs and those of the world they live in?

Finding the answers for questions like these is no simple task.

In our present adolescent state, the systems analysis required for an examination of all the factors involved in reaching decisions about staffing must be on a scale small enough to be manageable. Schools, colleges, and community agencies must be encouraged to work out answers for testing possible solutions with state help. But enacting restrictive certification requirements won't provide that help.

Certification must be kept as flexible as possible in order to accommodate all persons with the ability to intervene creatively in the lives of students—to make a difference in the way students behave. Admission to a differentiated role needs to be handled at a point close to the individual being certified rather than at the state level. There should be a movement toward local decision making and self-control, with more supportive assistance from the state. This movement should include the determination of professional performance in behavioral terms, so that useful judgments can be made. Such judgments will involve teachers, administrators, and college personnel in setting up roles for staff members that permit dealing effectively with stated educational objectives.

Certification should reflect our best current understanding of the education process. As those closer to the individual are empowered to certify, licensure or certification will become, as it should, a statement to the public that a teacher can indeed lead students to learn and develop better than they would without such guidance. Such an attestation must be made by an informed person after observing the candidate teaching in a situation where the task and the objectives have been defined and the performance is evaluated in terms of predetermined goals.

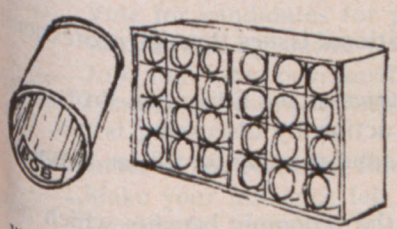
The breadth and complexity of the instructional task exceed the capacity of a single individual. As the jobs to be done are systematically differentiated and made more manageable, the possibility for certificating an individual's competence to perform the task becomes more manageable and more realistic. If we succeed in adapting teacher preparation and certification to our best understanding of human character and need, the achievement will be a guarantee of vitality to the entire education enterprise. •

IDEA EXCHANGE

TODAY'S EDUCATION *will pay $5 for each item used in "Idea Exchange" that has been prepared and submitted by an NEA member and that has not been published previously in a periodical having state or national distribution. (Please include your home address as well as your school, position, and zip code.)*

Let's Play Post Office

Setting up a mail corner in the classroom is simple and inexpensive. Ask your school cafeteria to save empty cans (the large fruit or tomato juice size) and the cases they come packed in. Put the empty cans back in their cases, turn the cases on their sides, and you have 12 mailboxes per case. You can decorate and label them any way you choose.



When you have handouts, notices, or papers of any sort to distribute, just place one in each mailbox. Children enjoy going to the mail corner to get their mail before they leave for home each day.

—Shirley Riel, *first grade teacher, Geoffrey Hilton Elementary School, Zillah, Washington.*

Portable File Cabinet

A 10¢ department-store shopping bag, outfitted with three small dress boxes open at one end, makes a handy portable file for pictures or folders.

—Lillian Oien, *first grade teacher, Beechwood School, Ft. Mitchell, Kentucky.*

Welcome!

Quite an adjustment is required of any child of any age who enters a new school, especially in the middle of a term. To make this adjustment easier and more pleasant for the new pupil, I introduce him to a small group in the class, preferably including those who live in the same neighborhood.

These children get the new child what books and supplies he will need. They then take him on a short tour of the building and for a brief visit to the classrooms of any brothers or sisters he may have in our school.

During the school day, the new pupil sits and works with those he knows. I avoid calling on him unless I am reasonably sure that he will know the answer. In other words, I am friendly but do not overwhelm him with attention.

When he leaves for home at the end of his first day, I give him a note for his parents. The note welcomes them to our school and community and tells them something about our PTA and about visiting our school to get acquainted.

In just a few days, our new pupil begins to feel that he is a part of the class.

—Helen Wingerter, *fifth grade teacher, Polk Street School, Franklin Square, New York.*

Farewell

Whenever one of my pupils leaves the district, I write a note for him to give to his new teacher. In the note, I make truthful complimentary statements about the child and his family in every area that I can—academic, civic, social, or emotional. I tell him he may read the note, which I hand to him unsealed.

—Virginia Mae Ferrill, *teacher, Demonstration School, Mississippi State College for Women, Columbus.*

Friend for the Day

When the school counselor brings a new pupil to our room, I welcome the child, introduce him to the class, and write his name on the board.

Next, I give him a set of textbooks and assign a child of the same sex to be his "Friend for the Day." They place their desks side by side, and from then on the Friend for the Day takes over.

He explains procedures, helps with assignments, eats with the newcomer, and stays with him until he goes home, making sure he gets to the right bus if he happens to be a bus pupil.

Each day a different child of the same sex takes a turn at being the newcomer's Friend for the Day. By the time they all have had a turn, the new pupil knows his way around and has made friends in the room. Since all the children are eager to be Friend for the Day, the newcomer usually feels accepted and is happy.

—Wilma Schreur, *sixth grade teacher, Comstock (Michigan) Middle School.*

Arithmetic Set to Music

In my class, I experimented to discover whether the children could learn arithmetic more quickly with the help of music.

The children suggested lyrics for a song; I added a word here and there to make it rhyme, and wrote the music. (Melodies of songs familiar to children would serve the same purpose.)

The class was thrilled. They quickly learned to sing the song and seemed to remember the number facts in it. They followed up by working on other versions of mathematical facts for me to set to music. Here is an example:

I like arithmetic, the ones and twos and fours;
Arithmetic is magic! It opens many doors.
Three and three are six; five and four are nine.
Five pennies make a nickel; two nickels make a dime.
Ten dimes make a dollar, a hundred pennies, too.
Make up a game yourself, to see what you can do.
Oh, I like arithmetic; the space men like it too.
'Cause they know what I know, that one and one are two.

—Alexandra J. Prober, *first grade teacher, Sierra Madre (California) School.*

This item was adapted from the Pi Lambda Theta Newsletter, *Vol. XII, No. 5, June 1968. Mrs. Prober owns the copyright to the song.*

Bag Them

In the primary grades, some pupils can never seem to remember to bring in a smock or old shirt to wear when they paint.

I struck upon a simple solution to the problem of providing them with protection. At the supermarket, for about a penny apiece, I buy 50-pound grocery bags, which I cut from top to bottom up the back. Then I cut off the bottoms and cut out armholes in each side. The children wear the bags with the openings in the back, and I staple the openings together at the tops.

These bags will fit children up to the size of an average 13-year-old. They can be thrown away or stored compactly for future use.

—Susan R. Hall, *teacher of grades one and two, Ashuelot (New Hampshire) School.*

Painless Paints

I have worked out a streamlined method of handling and storing tempera paints. To make the paint, I fill a baby food jar half full of powder paint and almost up to the rim with water. Then, after adding a small amount of detergent —for smoother spreading and a fresher odor—I cap the jar and shake it. (Because baby food jars have wide mouths, the children are better able to get their brushes into them. If paint spills, only a little is wasted, and a damp sponge wipes everything clean quickly. The jars are not hard to refill; they are easy for children to handle and even to open by themselves.)

The plastic, webbed containers that tomatoes are packaged in make ideal holders for sets of paints. I fill the containers with paint sets and stack them in a plastic dishpan (they stack beautifully in rows on top of each other, thereby decreasing the chances of breakage), so that all these jars fit into one small area of my art shelf where they are always in ready access and from which they are a breeze to carry.

When we want to paint, I give each child or small group of children one paint set of the basic colors plus green, black, and white. Orange, purple, brown, and turquoise are available if the children need them. Eventually, they learn to mix their own colors.

—Stefanie Rotsaert, *kindergarten teacher, Washington School, Hawthorne, New Jersey.*

HOW DO YOU MEASURE UP?

How Do You Measure Up as a Memb

• **As a first step in determining your professional stature, place a** check mark beside the questions you can answer *yes.*

As an individual, do you—

_____Join the united teaching profession—local, state, and national associations—and promote unified professional membership among your colleagues?

_____View your dues as an investment in your profession rather than just another expense?

_____Believe that being a member of the united teaching profession involves more than paying dues—that it includes participating actively, familiarizing yourself with the objectives of your associations, sharing in goal setting, and being a change agent?

_____Identify with your positional organizations (classroom teachers, principals, supervisors, or administrators)?

_____Identify with the associations representing your subject matter area?

_____Keep informed on educational issues through professional journals?

_____Abide by the Code of Ethics of the Education Profession?

_____Participate in political action by discussing issues, campaigning for candidates, and running for offices if you are so inclined?

_____Inform yourself about the economic benefits which may be offered by your local and state organizations?

___Credit union___Life insurance___Health and accident insurance___Personal liability insurance___Income protection insurance___Tax-deferred annuity program___Installment financing___Home mortgage loans___Discount buying.

As a member of your local association, do you—

_____Attend meetings?

_____Volunteer for assignments?

_____Accept committee appointments?

_____Participate in in-service education programs?

_____Lend your efforts in negotiations with the school board by contributing your ideas, serving on the negotiating team, or working on supportive committees?

_____Have a thorough knowledge of grievance procedures so that you can help in referring aggrieved colleagues to the proper persons?

_____Defend teacher rights?

_____Do your part to see to it that classroom teachers, as the largest segment of your association, have an impact commensurate with their number?

_____Work for minority-group involvement in your association program?

_____Reach out to the new teacher, acquaint him with your association's services, encourage him to participate in its activities, and accept him as a member of the team?

_____Support candidates for professional offices who have a record of service to the association; who are committed to the association's goals rather than to their own personal advancement; who speak for the membership?

_____Encourage your association to work with Student NEA chapters in nearby colleges?

_____Promote the Future Teachers of America by supporting

of the United Teaching Profession?

FTA chapters and by serving as a sponsor?

_____Make sure your association is represented at meetings of your state education association as well as at those of the state classroom teachers association?

_____Make sure that your association uses its full quota of delegates to the Representative Assemblies of the NEA and of its Association of Classroom Teachers?

_____Serve as a delegate to state and national conventions if named?

As a member of the state association, do you—

_____Participate in state and regional meetings?

_____Accept committee assignments?

_____Prepare yourself for office?

_____Read your state association journal and newsletter?

_____Keep abreast of progress in your state association's legislative program?

_____Vote for candidates for public offices who are favorable to the state legislative program?

_____Join your state positional association?

_____Familiarize yourself with its program and services?

As a member of the National Education Association, do you—

_____Make your influence felt in the NEA Representative Assembly by studying NEA resolutions and reports and discussing them with delegates?

_____Attend regional and national conferences?

_____Identify with the Association of Classroom Teachers or your positional association and take advantage of its services?

_____Read TODAY'S EDUCATION and the *NEA Reporter?*

_____Support the NEA DuShane Emergency Fund?

_____Inform yourself and your colleagues about NEA services?

____Life insurance____Accident insurance____Tax-deferred annuity program____NEA Mutual Fund____Auto leasing ____Research____Publications and other materials____ Field service____Salary and negotiation consultant services ____ Instructional activities ____ Legislative work ____ Travel program____Job referral service____Public relations____Promotion of high standards of teacher preparation, certification, and performance____Protection of professional, civil, and human rights.

Next, write the names of the following in the blanks provided:

Your local association president_____

Your state education association president_____

The president of your state association of classroom teachers or of your positional association_____

Your NEA state director(s)_____

The NEA president_____

The president of NEA's Association of Classroom Teachers or of your positional association_____

The NEA executive secretary_____

The NEA headquarters city_____

See how you measure up as a member of the united teaching profession.

—**Jean Heflin,** *editorial assistant, Association of Classroom Teachers, NEA.*

HOW DO YOU MEASURE UP?

Applying PRESSUR

CHARLES A. KIESLER, *on sabbatical leave from his position as associate professor, Department of Psychology, Yale University.*

• **When a fifth grade spelling student** with a perfect paper receives a B for sloppy writing, does he now regard neatness as a virtue? When a sophomore misses football practice because he clumped down the stairs, does this student now admire restraint and decorum?

Each instance poses a problem about the relationship between *behavior* and *belief*. The issue is: When we force a person to do something, does he then believe accordingly? Or, more generally: What is the relationship between the *degree* of pressure to behave in a certain way and relevant *attitudes?*

Attitudes and beliefs: For the sake of argument, let's consider them to be the same thing. To drive a semantic wedge between them is easy enough, but it wouldn't change what is to follow one whit. So please go along with me for the sake of exposition.

An attitude is a theoretical construct, a made-up something that is accepted because it seems to represent the real world so well. An attitude is an evaluation of something; it is positive or negative. Attitudes can vary in other dimensions as well. They are more or less complex, intense, central to one's being, and related to other attitudes. Everyone seems to have a good intuitive grasp of what an attitude is. Psychologists have tried to turn the term *attitude* into a precise scientific concept, but they stole it from the everyday language, and it has retained its original flavor.

Attitude formation and change are implicit parts of the day-to-day existence of the educator, whether he realizes it or not. Some pupil attitudes—toward the teacher as an authority, for example—are simply assumed to exist. Other attitudes—such as a positive evaluation of learning and of the school as a system—are explicitly taught in almost all schools. Most, but not all, schools expect a positive evaluation of democracy and a negative evaluation of communism.

Still other attitudes that are taught—sometimes quite explicitly, sometimes not—vary from teacher to teacher. We have come to expect the teacher from a working class background to preach neatness, cleanliness, respect for authority, and the value of hard work. A more middle-class teacher will preach about relationships with others, finding oneself, and looking for the challenges in life. Perhaps preach is too extreme a term; but even though the teacher may not be explicit, his attitudes and expectations ring through the classroom, sometimes dominating the learning process. And students get the word. They know. Ask them.

I am not going to argue about which attitudes the schools should teach. That's not my bag, as they say. I simply hope they will accept the fact that attitudes—important attitudes—are formed and changed in the school setting. Since teachers often do—sometimes even want to—change their students' attitudes (they influence, inevitably, through interaction), it is worthwhile to think about conditions that produce attitude change and about problems entailed.

I don't mean to sound Orwellian or to provide teachers with a neat indoctrination package. Many, perhaps most, of you don't want to be responsible for your students' values. I respect and advocate such a stance. However, to pretend that you don't affect them is quite another thing. Whether you want to maximize or minimize your "attitudinal impact" on students, you still have to know something about how attitudes are formed and changed.

The necessity of placing even small problems in context accounts for this long introduction to our problem: the relationship between pressure to behave and attitude.

The rather broad phrase, *pressure to behave,* includes what teachers refer to as positive and negative incentives. An offer of five dollars to someone to do something we ask produces greater pressure on him than an offer of only one dollar. Requests from attractive or likable persons put more pressure on us than the same requests from unattractive or less likable persons. The threat of expulsion from school for a transgression creates greater pressure on students to behave properly than the threat of only an hour of detention. And "I prefer that you get your hair cut" implies greater pressure than "It's entirely up to you."

In short, most of the strategies we use to induce the young to behave in a certain way are more or less pressure to behave. And generally, the more pressure put on a student to behave in a given way, the more likely he is to do so. Obviously. Perhaps that is why we offer large incentives for compliance with more valued norms or

Dr. Kiesler is the author (with B. E. Collins and N. Miller) of *Attitude Change: A Critical Analysis of Theoretical Approaches,* John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1969. He and his wife are the coauthors of *Conformity,* to be published in April by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

and Changing ATTITUDES

rules and impose large penalties for transgressions against more central values. The young may behave the way we ask, but are their values affected?

Beliefs are important partly because they insure the continuity of behavior. If my son is to go to medical school, he has to get good grades. If I pay him for good grades, he'll probably get them, but perhaps that won't work forever. Somewhere along the line he has to value scholarship. How do I effect that? What is the relationship between how much I push him to get good grades and the degree to which he values scholarship?

A good deal of research by social psychologists on just this question has shown that the less pressure you put on a person to behave a certain way, the better off you are—providing you apply sufficient pressure in the first place to induce the prescribed behavior. That is, assuming your son gets good grades, the less money you offer as incentive, the more likely he is ultimately to value scholarship as an end in itself.

Now we have two types of situations: one, when the required behavior is inconsistent with the person's attitude on the issue; and another, when the behavior *is* consistent with belief. Leon Festinger originated the inquiry into situations involving behavior inconsistent with belief, and about 200 experiments dealing with such situations have produced relatively uniform results: The less the pressure to perform an act inconsistent with attitude, the more the attitude changes to fit closer with the act. (But the behavior must be explicit and the incentive made known prior to performance; otherwise, the opposite, perhaps more widely known, effect will occur.) Let me illustrate.

In a tightly controlled experiment, James DeSalvo and I led half of our subjects (college students in groups of four) to expect to like each other; half, not to. Each group was to get its choice of two tasks to work on for an hour: writing a fictional biography, or collating materials.

By a subtle manipulation, we created a situation in which each participant thought that the others in the group preferred the collating job. In reality, almost everyone privately rated the writing task as the more appealing. But each agreed to work on the less desired task, to go along with the group.

Because of what we led them to expect, members of half the groups regarded each other positively, while those in the other groups did not. Recall that the more attractive the behavior-inducing agent, the greater the presumed pressure on the individual. Which persons, then, ended up liking the group task (collating) more? Those who regarded each other negatively.

A great many such experiments have shown that the effects of varying degrees of pressure applied to induce behavior inconsistent with belief are real and reliable. Very few experiments, however, have been carried out (and these, mainly by me and my students) to determine the effects of pressures to perform "consistent behavior." Consequently, we must be cautious in generalizing about them.

Typically, in these experiments we have asked our subjects to perform some act consistent with their beliefs, and we vary the pressure to behave from person to person. If we don't make a big deal of it, we usually find that consistent behavior has little effect on existing attitude. As long as the act isn't clearly inconsistent with a subject's attitude, he seems willing to perform without really thinking much about it. Nevertheless, this behavior does affect the way he reacts to later events—to subsequent influence attempts.

For instance, in one experiment we paid some subjects one dollar and others five to record a speech consistent with their attitude on a certain issue. No attitude change occurred. Later, however, each subject read a communication attacking his attitude on the issue. The result: Those to whom we paid one dollar for the original behavior were more immune to the attack. In short, the less the pressure for behavior consistent with attitude, the more resistance to later confrontation.

This research, it seems to me, is relevant to the school, to its ways of influencing attitudes. Suppose one confronts a student whose existing belief in democracy is tender and fragile. In the long run (and especially if one expects this belief to come under later attack) it is best not to try hammering more into him. Gently; gently. I believe the school, regardless of level, should be very careful about inculcating attitudes. Many educators who try to affect the attitudes of the young do it poorly through ignorance of the processes by which attitudes change. This may be fortunate. But unfortunately, many who have no wish to dictate attitudes do so inadvertently through a similar lack of understanding. •

INTERACTION BRIEFS

Stop Action

This year TODAY'S EDUCATION *is carrying a monthly series of "Interaction Briefs" aimed at presenting sensitivity-training techniques for use in a variety of classroom situations. They are prepared by staff members of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science (formerly National Training Laboratories, a division of NEA, and now an autonomous organization associated with NEA). Dorothy J. Mial, director of the Center for the Development of Educational Leadership, and Stanley Jacobson, director of the Division of Information Services, NTL, are the authors of this month's Brief.*

• **"Stop action" is the technique** of interrupting work on a task in order to examine the way we are working.

It is a simple corrective for our tendency to become so absorbed in *what* we are doing that we fail to notice—and learn from—*how* we are doing it.

As in the case of techniques presented in previous "Interaction Briefs," stop action helps students learn to be more effective group members and group leaders. It can increase group creativity (whether it is used in a science or social studies project or in planning a class outing) and it can add to the learning and satisfaction gained from the experience.

To introduce stop action, ask groups of students to create an original graphic symbol for a real or imaginary organization. The teacher or a committee of students should choose in advance the subject to be symbolized. The school, the class, a real club, or an imaginary "Teen-ager's Society" are all good subjects. The exercise can also be linked to a curriculum area by choosing a subject, such as a political party, a nation, a city, a profession, or the advocates of a particular school of thought in art or literature.

For the exercise itself, follow these easy steps:

1. Divide the class into groups of five or six, and give each group a poster-size sheet of newsprint or wrapping paper and a few crayons or colored chalks.

2. Announce that the groups will have 15 minutes to create a pictorial symbol of the chosen subject. Showing a few examples of symbols on flags, seals, and coats of arms should be enough to get them started.

3. When 10 minutes have passed, stop the groups and tell them to take five minutes to analyze *how* they have been working. To guide the discussion, direct their attention to the following questions, which can be written on the chalkboard or on slips of paper prepared in advance: (a) Is everyone in the group participating? (b) Whose ideas are being carried out? (c) Have any ideas been passed over or rejected? Why? (d) How are things being decided?

4. When the five minutes of analysis are over, tell the groups to take five minutes more to complete the project.

5. Then, stop the action and have the groups discuss the same questions again for five minutes.

6. After posting the symbols around the room, bring the entire class together, and have each group explain its symbol and the way they worked to create it.

7. After all groups have reported, hold a general discussion on "looking at how we work together." Questions such as these will help get the discussion started: "Were you influenced during the second work period because you had stopped to consider how you were working? In what way?" "How might your group have improved the way it worked?"

In the discussion, all points of view should be accepted as valid in order to demonstrate that every person experiences events differently. If time permits, each student can jot down a number representing his degree of satisfaction with the way his group worked—for example, 1 for not at all, 2 for very little, 3 for more satisfied than not, and 4 for very much. The results can be quickly tabulated and introduced into the discussion with questions like "Does this degree of satisfaction seem adequate?" and "What are some reasons people were not satisfied and what can we do about these in the future?"

Stop action can be useful in any number of situations. Here are a few general applications:

• In committee work, with questions such as "What's helping us do our job?" "What's holding us up?"

• During class discussion, with questions like "Does everyone have a chance to contribute?" and "What would make the discussion better?"

• At formal meetings, with questions like "How are we reaching our decisions?" and "Do we know how the various members feel about the meeting?" •

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Nylen, Donald, Mitchell, J. Robert, and Stout, Anthony. *Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa.* Revised edition. Washington, D.C. National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with the NEA, 1967. "Staff Performance and Group Growth," pp. 88-96.

NEW NEA PUBLICATIONS

This listing is prepared monthly to keep members informed of the newest professional books, pamphlets, and audiovisual materials published by the NEA and its units.

Ability Grouping (#1). Research Summary 1968-S3. A source book of the research on ability grouping. Affords special attention to recent findings and studies. 52 pp. $1. Stock No. 434-22814. Research Division.

Average Salary of Instructional Staff in Public Schools, by State: 1939-40 to 1968-69 (#2). Research Memo 1969-1. Gives salaries for school years 1940, 1950, 1960, 1962, 1964, and each year thereafter through 1969. 1 p. 10¢. Stock No. 431-22834. Research Division.

The Big Talent Hunt: How Leading Public School Districts Recruit Teachers (#3). An *Education U.S.A.* report that describes techniques used by 27 large and medium-sized public school districts. Discusses costs; when to recruit; where to recruit; who should do the recruiting. Includes candid opinions of campus placement officers from nine major teacher-training institutions. 32 pp. $5. Stock No. 411-12446. National School Public Relations Association.

Brain Damage in School Age Children (#4). Examines the organization of the central nervous system, organic language disorders, epilepsies, the use of psychological tests in diagnosing brain damage, the laboratory method of screening, and minimal brain dysfunction. Includes the theories of Doman and Delacato and an annotated bibliography on anoxia. 273 pp. Cloth, $6.50, Stock No. 551-21048; paper, $5.50, Stock No. 551-21046. Council for Exceptional Children.

Bridging Differences Among People (#5). Describes how some people are being denied the opportunity to learn how to live in a multicultural society in the midst of the openness, freedom, and affluence of suburban life. Includes suggestions for parents on how to combat racial prejudice. 8 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12440. NSPRA.

Education's New Language (#6). Provides new definitions resulting from innovations, new teaching methods, federal aid-to-education programs, educational technology, and other developments. 12 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12730. NSPRA.

Estimates of School Statistics, 1968-69 (#7). Research Report 1968-R16. Lists enrollments, number of teachers, salaries, school revenue and expenditures by state, region, and the nation. Revised estimates for 1967-68 and 1968-69. 36 pp. $1. Stock No. 435-13374. Research Division.

Evaluating Administrative Performance (#8). ERS Circular No. 7, 1968. Outlines the procedures used in 62 school systems for evaluating administrative and supervisory personnel and reproduces samples of the forms used in evaluation. 56 pp. $1.50. Stock No. 219-21460. Educational Research Service.

Flexible Scheduling in Action (#9). Prepared by the editors of *Education U.S.A.* Describes flexible, or modular, scheduling in U.S. schools today. Gives views of both students and teachers and examines demands and problems posed by this technique. 8 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12430. NSPRA.

How To Help Youngsters Learn To Study (#10). Suggests ways in which teachers and parents can help youngsters learn to study. Includes tips and "practice" techniques on listening, note-taking, homework, and exam taking. 18 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12426. NSPRA.

How To Provide for Safety in the Science Laboratory (#11). Discusses safety consciousness and preparedness in the laboratory. Includes a thorough checklist of safety concepts and potentially dangerous situations. 12 pp. 35¢. Stock No. 471-14576. National Science Teachers Association.

ICHPER XI International Congress Report (#12). Proceedings of the Dublin meeting. Topics include curriculum development; leisure; professional preparation; recent developments in facilities and equipment; and improvement of personal and community health. 160 pp. $2.50. Stock No. 248-07990. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Industrial Arts Education: Purposes, Program, Facilities, Instruction, Supervision 1969 (#13). A revision of the source on *I.A. Education.* 40 pp. $1. Stock No. 641-21316. American Industrial Arts Association.

The Keys to the Car (#14). Examines the issues automobiles pose for parents and students. 12 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12444. NSPRA.

NFACJC Prototype Master Agreement. An aid to NFA chapters in preparing proposals for negotiation. Contains some 80 suggested provisions based on major faculty concerns as expressed by two-year college faculties across the country. 34 pp. $5. Free to NFA chapters. *Order directly from* the National Faculty Association of Community and Junior Colleges, Room 721, NEA Headquarters.

National Assessment of Educational Progress—Some Questions and Comments (#15). Revised edition. Contains the latest information on the manner in which the national assessment program will be carried out. 32 pp. 50¢. Stock No. 181-05532. Department of Elementary School Principals.

New Concepts in Industrial Arts (Selected Addresses and Proceedings of the American Industrial Arts Association's 30th Annual Convention at Minneapolis) (#16). 345 pp. Cloth, $5.50, Stock No. 641-21314; paper, $4.50, Stock No. 641-21312. AIAA.

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Picking Up the Options (#18). A collection of 23 speeches by former U.S. Commissioner of Education Harold Howe II, who deals wisely and refreshingly with education's important issues. 257 pp. Cloth, $7.50, Stock No. 181-05576; paper, $6, Stock No. 181-05574. DESP.

Professional Teacher Education II: A Programed Design Developed by the AACTE Teacher Education and Media Project. A Report on Workshops in Teacher Education (#19). Describes a series of regional workshops in teacher education held throughout the country. Explains the workshops' design, presents the six working papers of the workshops, and reports the research findings. 100 pp. $1.50. Special discount: 10% on five or more of one title. Stock No. 011-00228. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

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Some of the Highest Salaries Scheduled for Teachers, 1968-69 (#22). Research Memo 1968-13. Gives the salaries scheduled for teachers by level of preparation for certain school systems; includes information on whether salaries may be exceeded in recognition of long service or merit. 10 pp. 30¢. Stock No. 431-22836. Research Division.

Special Education Teacher Education Directory, 1968-69 (#23). Offers program and personnel information for special education departments at colleges and universities in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico. For students, counselors, teacher educators, clinicians, state and federal agencies, and all special educators. 104 pp. $2.50. Stock No. 551-21054. CEC.

Teacher Productivity—1967 (#24). Provides data on 969 schools concerned with teacher training. Gives not only number of students completing requirements for initial certification but also the number completing master's and doctor's degree programs in education. 116 pp. $2. Special discount: 10% for five or more of one title. Stock No. 011-00226. AACTE.

Thoughts for the New Teacher: This Is Teaching (#25). Revised 1968 edition. Highlights the many aspects of the professional teacher's job. Illustrated. 16 pp. Fifteen copies for $1. Stock No. 111-03844. Association of Classroom Teachers.

Topics in Mathematics for Elementary School Teachers. Booklets that extend the subject matter of an earlier series and add some specialized and more advanced topics. Gives the modern approach to a basic topic in elementary school mathematics. Includes examples, exercises, and solutions to problems. Available separately as listed below. 65¢ each. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

1. **Booklet No. 9: The System of Integers** (#26). 72 pp. Stock No. 301-09356.
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Volleyball Skills Test Manual (for Boys and Girls) (#32). A manual to improve teaching and evaluation of volleyball that contains a series of skills tests with national norms for boys and girls, ages 10 through 18. 48 pp. 75¢. Stock No. 242-07946. AAHPER.

What Research Says to the Teacher Series—Teaching Handwriting (#33). No. 4. New edition. Discusses latest research on instruction of handwriting. Covers legibility, handwriting style, movement, and classroom procedures. 31 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 115-03574. ACT.

What Research Says to the Teacher Series—Teaching the Social Studies (#34). No. 20. Discusses the findings of the most recent research in social studies: the shift in emphasis from content exclusively to concepts and methods; expanded content, including current events and controversial issues; and the growing range of media available to the teacher. 31 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 115-03606. ACT.

Where Does Good Health Begin? (#35). Discusses student misconceptions about health and examines personal hygiene, sex education, consumer education, and community health problems. 8 pp. 25¢. Stock No. 411-12438. NSPRA.

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To obtain, order directly from ACT.

Official Report, 1967-68. The association's annual report. Includes reports by officers, the executive secretary, and committees. Presents the platform and resolutions. 124 pp. Stock No. 111-03654.

What Is the Association of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association? Describes the association's objectives, programs, and services. Stock No. 113-03728.

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LOCAL ASSOCIATION OF THE MONTH

Waterbury Teachers Association (Connecticut)

FOUNDED: 1903
PRESENT MEMBERSHIP: 926
DUES: $7 (with $6 assessment this year)
OFFICERS: President, 1st vice-president, 2nd vice-president, treasurer, recording secretary, corresponding secretary, financial secretary, four executive board members

It Fights Community Neglect of the Schools

The incoming president of the Waterbury Teachers Association solved a parking problem for teachers in the inner-city schools by persuading the police to remove the parking meters around the schools. This simple fact indicates the political impact that the group has on the city. Even so, developing adequate school support is a tremendous problem in a community where more than 65 percent of the school buildings are over fifty years old.

Waterbury is an old industrial city that grew rich on brass. At one time it was a state leader in education, but this is far from true today. Its power, its city government, and, apparently, its general citizenry have grown increasingly remote from the schools.

In 1963, an NEA investigating committee reported that "in some buildings there were wide gaps between the window frames and the windows themselves, plaster and paint falling from classroom ceilings, leaky roofs, windows nailed shut, poor lighting in the corridors, and generally poor maintenance." The report also indicated inadequate budgeting for libraries and instructional equipment so poor that science teachers had to beg pharmacists to donate some.

Henry Capozzi, now completing his fourth year as president, told me about a recent report by the Connecticut Education Council (a statewide committee appointed by Governor John Dempsey) which holds that Waterbury citizens are "antischool" and that "the power structure governing the schools," as in other Connecticut cities, "is politically rather than educationally oriented."

In 1963, WTA campaigned for a new mayor and helped to elect him. Subsequently, more money for schools was appropriated. The textbook allowance was tripled, for example, but I was told that "the school board never spent it." The association won a negotiating contract under Connecticut statutes, but for three years, the board of education—fiscally dependent on the city—did not honor its own impasse procedures. With frustration piled on frustration, the association called a four-day strike in November and had every member out of school.

"What do your members really want?" I asked the officers. "Is it salary gains?"

"In part, yes," they responded. (Salaries for beginning four-year teachers rank 139th in the state, and young teachers today no longer seek employment in Waterbury.) But quickly they went on, "We want reduction in class size, more supplies, a greater voice in shaping the curriculum. We want the contract honored, so that when it calls for compulsory arbitration of an impasse, we can get it. We want new schools in the inner city—not just out in the suburbs."

As they spoke, I got the feeling that they would like to be able to put the salary issue in its proper perspective and get on with the job of improving education—particularly in the inner city, where the student population is growing heavily black. (When 300 children who don't speak English were added to the school system's already polyglot population, WTA, through its group contract with the board of education, initiated a language development course of which it is very proud.)

The association enrolls as members all but a few of the city's 955 teachers. (More than 40 teachers are black and are beginning to assume leadership in the association's representative council.) It is seeking annual local dues of $15, an office, a secretarial assistant, and a full year's leave for the president. It is governed by a representative council with one representative for each 10 members. This group votes on policy issues, but major issues, such as their decision to strike, are made in general membership meetings. ("We get a 95 percent turnout," said the officers, who attribute the solidarity of the association to the involvement of members.)

Issues are close to the teacher. The association has handled this school year some 50 grievance questions, at least 20 of which have gone the full route. Members are aware that the association has more ready access to the superintendent than his administrative staff. Recognizing the courage of the leaders, members tend to reelect them to office, where they serve willingly, "even though our nights are not our own."

The political "clout" of the association is organized through its legislative committee. This committee backs candidates, and, thus far, those that the association has en-

dorsed have won election. Teachers also individually back candidates and serve in the election process. Because many of the teachers have families whose branches reach deeply into other areas of city life and its organizations, association leaders know where the political power is, even though they may find the centers of financial control harder to penetrate.

The WTA Personnel Policies Committee oversees negotiations. The Professional Rights and Responsibilities Committee is chiefly concerned with effective grievance procedure. The Public Relations Committee uses a "phone-in" radio program to discuss issues, gets news releases into radio time, occasionally advertises in the unfriendly local paper, does what it can to improve news relations, and hires a public relations consultant when needed.

Pride in their profession shines out in every statement that the officers make, and the 100 percent support of their strike action indicates that the members are solidly united behind their leaders. Conditions are better than they were in 1962-63, but the association does not have a success story as yet. So far, it has not been able to break through the public apathy to education. So far, it has not freed the school board from its complete fiscal dependence on the city government. So far, its use of normal public relations methods has not been able to influence effectively the financial power centers of the community. So far, its members find themselves increasingly frustrated in their main interest—educating children.

Obviously, the predicament this association faces (which, perhaps in lower degree, is the predicament of many local associations today) indicates that, to win, the Waterbury Teachers Association must sharpen every point of its operation. Its main immediate objective must be to increase the investment the city makes in its schools. This calls for a dramatic increase in public awareness of the importance of education. Perhaps neither of these objectives can be fully attained until the corporate structure of the city can be changed.

To reach objectives as big as these, the association must develop its own financial strength even beyond its proposed dues increase and develop structure and staff support for a broadened program of community involvement.

Despite the fact that the association is flexing its muscle, these objectives may lie beyond the reach of a single association working alone. Changing the corporate structure of a city involves a state legislature and power centers outside the city. Offsetting poor press relations in a single city may involve other channels of communication centered outside the city. Adequate funding of the schools of Waterbury may involve both the state legislature and the U. S. Congress.

Leaders and members of the association do feel committed to their profession, committed to be active in their community and effective as citizens. They are developing a concept of teacher power through a united profession. But to be increasingly effective in these areas, the association must develop true unity of membership and program with its state and national counterparts and be committed to and involved in their programs. Only in this way can it be sure that in the city of brass, education is not just a "tinkling cymbal."

—**John H. Starie,** *director, Division of Affiliates and Membership, NEA.*

"I'm down to my last desperate resort toward getting a passing grade—studying."

CLASSROOM INCIDENT

This is another in a JOURNAL *series presenting the handling of a troublesome classroom incident by a teacher and analyses by consultants whose training and experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights.*

• **When the school board offered** me the position of band teacher at what I shall call Valley High, I had hoped that the new generation of Valley students would reflect the unprejudiced attitude of the board, but no such luck. During my student days at Valley the Anglo students—and even some of the teachers—hadn't hesitated to let those of us who were of Mexican ancestry know that they considered us an inferior breed, and the same wall of prejudice still divided the student body into two warring ethnic groups.

I was the first of my heritage to become a teacher at Valley, and, understandably, the Mexican-American youngsters regarded me as their prime advocate on the faculty. I was touched by their turning to me, particularly since many of the Anglo students were polite at best, but I tried hard not to show favoritism and refused to take sides in the running battle.

Midway in the term, in a fight between two seniors—Bill Robinson, let's say, and Ramon Sanchez—Bill really battered Ramon. The Mexican boys, claiming that Robinson hadn't fought fairly, vowed vengeance. During two weeks of growing tension, they plotted reprisals. I tried not to listen, telling myself that I must be as detached as any other teacher.

Then, thanks, to Maria, I found myself in the thick of things. She came early one morning to help me sort music. "This is the big day," she said. "Everything's ready." She went on to tell me that Ramon, whose father had a well-equipped home workshop, had made weapons to use in an all-out war on the Anglos. About ten boys had come to school today with their pockets loaded with home-made armaments, and they had secreted additional supplies in the shrubbery around the school. According to Maria, Manuel had his trombone case packed full.

Manuel was in my first period band section, so it was easy for me to check Maria's story. Sure enough, when I opened Manuel's instrument case, I found a regular arsenal—dog chains, brass knuckles, straps of leather with bolts tied into the ends, razor blades, and razor-sharp butcher knives, paring knives, and nail files. No toys these!

Appalled, I reported the affair to the principal. He notified the police, who confiscated the weapons, and hauled off to the station house the boys who had had them on their persons.

My interference probably averted serious trouble. I wonder, though, if I couldn't have handled the affair in some other way. As it happened, I ended up as the scapegoat. The Mexican parents supported the boys, even the ones who confessed the plot, and acted as though my reporting the plans for the fight had been a betrayal of my own kind. From that day on, the Mexican-American students went out of their way to be insulting and uncooperative. The rest of the year was a nightmare, and I didn't go back to Valley for a second year.

Consultants' Comments

Eugene H. Fink, *choral director, Mead (Washington) Senior High School.*

Since the band director was the first Mexican-American on the faculty, it is possible that the school board and the administration at Valley High saw the need for someone with his background to whom the Mexican-American students could turn—someone with a sense of fair play. But the band director was young and seemed to be having the problem of developing his identity within the school community. Perhaps that is why he tried to assume an attitude of extreme neutrality—to be as "detached as any other teacher."

His assumption about his colleagues was not necessarily true, however. I would doubt that all the other teachers at Valley High would have refrained from becoming involved—at least in something as explosive as this situation. Nor would the community have wanted them to be detached.

If the band director had taken this opportunity to be available to all the students, to develop small group meetings with both sides, he might have acquired the leadership role. A discussion of the reasons for the conflict and the possible consequences of the violent action being contemplated might have proved worthwhile.

As a teacher he had the authority to bring both sides together, at least the two original combatants. Such a meeting might have stopped any further action. He also had the authority to counsel parents about the consequences of a violent confrontation between the Mexican and Anglo youngsters.

Clearly, he had the responsibility to keep administrators informed of the impending confrontation so that they could do the job he was reluctant to undertake.

Since none of these solutions were attempted, his belated report to the principal was the only honest thing to do, and, consequently, the best one available under the circumstances.

Ernestyne E. Whiteside, *head, English Department, Townsend Park High School, Pine Bluff, Arkansas.*

Racial issues are usually explosive ones in America today and this incident at Valley High was no exception. Students and teachers in integrated schools are often

(Continued on page 81)

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ART EDUCATION

Institute of American Indian Arts. Features 80 reproductions and an illustrated section on the work of the Institute and its students. First publication in the new *Native American Arts* series. 1968. 60 pp. 65¢. Cat. No. I 1.84/4:1. Supt. Doc.

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GOOSE GLASSES

It's fun to say "Where are my goose glasses?" They look so silly they make folks laugh. *To make:* Join together with pipe cleaner 2 cardboard liners from jar lids. Cut big eye holes. Use border of a paper plate for head, feet, beak. Decorate with poster paint. Tie on with yarn.

I LOVE YOU SPECS

These glasses are fun to wear at any time but especially at a birthday party. *To make:* Cut out 2 heart shapes from red cardboard or paint plain cardboard red. Use pipe cleaner to join hearts with pipe cleaner for nose bridge and for ear pieces. Cut big round eye holes.

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Cardboard cut from side or wall of an oatmeal box will make a natural wraparound. No ear pieces needed, the shape holds glasses on. *To make:* Cut 1½" strip from oatmeal box to fit snugly over face. Cut big square or rectangular eye holes. Notch for nose. Round off 2 ends which fit back of head. Paint with diagonal strips.

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BIBLIOGRAPHIES

The Black Experience and the School Curriculum. Teaching materials for use from kindergarten through grade 12. Annotated. Includes social studies, biography, fiction, pictures, filmstrips, toys, and others. 1968. 52 pp. $2. Wellsprings Ecumenical Center, 6380 Germantown Ave., Philadelphia 19144.

Books for Teachers of English. An annotated bibliography with discussions of books on poetry, fiction, drama, biography. 1968. 192 pp. $1.85. Indiana University Press, Tenth and Morton Sts., Bloomington, Ind. 47401.

Building Together. Selected reading list for schools and youth groups to use in the education of boys and girls for social responsibility. For K-12. 1968. 30 pp. 50¢. United Community Funds and Councils of America, 345 East 46 St., New York 10017.

CONSERVATION EDUCATION

An Environment Fit for People. Explains the new meaning and concern of conservation in cities and in the natural world. 1968. 28 pp. 25¢. Pamphlet No. 421. Public Affairs Committee, 381 Park Ave. South, New York 10016.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Children Around the World. Collection of articles and stories about children of other lands—both fact and fiction. Map of country with each story. Color illustrations. 1968. 33 pp. 75¢. Highlights for Children, Inc., 2300 W. Fifth Ave., Columbus, Ohio 43216.

How a Book Is Made Bookmark. Traces in words and pictures the basic steps in creating a book. Also a Hans Christian Andersen Bookmark. 1968. 3 x 9 in. 100 for $2. The Childrens Book Council, Inc., 175 Fifth Ave., New York 10010.

How To Paint with Natural Earths & Sands. Details ways to carry out artistic work with natural sands and earths of various colors. Includes drawings of tools and techniques. With color photos. 1968. 50 pp. $1.25. Naturegraph Publishers, 8339 West Dry Creek Road, Healdsburg, Calif. 95448.

Set Slide. Write-on slide rule designed for early grades. Develops the set concept and one-to-one relationships. 1968. 10 x 4 in. 75¢ ppd. Grumm Associates Education Aids, 26 Robin Drive, Hauppauge, N.Y. 11787.

Skill Games for Mathematics. Jingles, games, contests, teaching devices, and thought-provoking exercises on modern math topics such as sets, counting and numeration computation, nondecimal bases, fractions, and geometry. 1968. 48 pp. $1.25. The Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, N.Y. 14437.

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The English Language: From Anglo-Saxon to American. History of the English language with illustrations, charts, questions, and suggested activities. 1968. 64 pp. 30¢. American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

India: Selected Readings. Examines the heritage of thought and tradition of India. Groups of readings focused on the land and people; Indian writings—legends, literature, laws, religious beliefs; and the historical disunity and the effects of foreign invasions. (One of the *World Regional Studies* series.) 1968. 213 pp. $1.80. Houghton Mifflin Co., 110 Tremont St., Boston 02107.

Towards Efficiency in Reading. Passages for practice in faster and more efficient reading for students and adults. Includes comprehension tests. 1968. 102 pp. $1.45. Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th St., New York 10022.

HEALTH EDUCATION

The Great Vitamin Mystery. Historical tales of the discovery of the vitamins with each episode presented as a mystery story. Also presents other nutrients, tells about current nutrition problems that remain to be solved, and gives a series of food experiments the children can do. Chiefly for upper elementary and junior high. 1968. 39 pp. 20¢. National Dairy Council, 111 N. Canal St., Chicago 60606.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Citizen's Guide to the Federal Fair Housing Law of 1968. Contains coverage of new housing law, prohibited actions, provisions for enforcement, filing of complaints, list of states and localities with fair housing laws. With supplement on Supreme Court Decision on Civil Rights Act of 1866. 1968. 24 pp. and 4 pp. 35¢. National Committee Against Discrimination in Housing, 323 Lexington Ave., New York 10016.

Colonial Kenya. Considers the problems of an underdeveloped nation in adjusting to twentieth-century technology. One of the series adapted from the Harvard Social Studies Project. Teaching guide available. 1968. 64 pp. 30¢. American Education Publications, 55 High St., Middletown, Conn. 06457.

"Dear Mr. King . . ." A tribute in words and pictures by sixth grade children in White Plains, New York. Also documents the presentation of the Nobel Peace Prize to Martin Luther King, Jr. 1968. 96 pp. $2.25. Buckingham Enterprises, Inc., 160-08 Jamaica Ave., Jamaica, N.Y. 11432.

Marching to Freedom: The Life of Martin Luther King, Jr. Biography written for junior and senior high school level. With photos. 1968. 160 pp. 75¢. American Education Publications, 55 High St., Middletown, Conn. 06457.

(Continued on page 76)

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(Continued from page 75)

Manufacturing in the United States: 1963. New statistical map. Shows value in dollars for standard metropolitan statistical areas and counties. 1968. 41 x 30 in. 50¢. No. 22 in the GE-50 U.S. Map Series. Supt. Doc.

Money and You. Public service messages geared to encourage a greater understanding of the importance and mechanics of our economic system. 1968. 16 pp. 20¢. Dept. of Printing, American Bankers Association, 90 Park Ave., New York 10016.

National Flags and Ensigns. Chart with 190 flags. Identifies national flags, merchant flags, and ensigns of various countries, semi-independent states, and international organizations. 1968. 45 x 32 in. 50¢. Cat. No. D 203.27:F 59. Supt. Doc.

Race & Pace. A legal history of the neighborhood school. Covers districts and areas, overcrowding, gerrymandering, racial balance, residence and constitutional right. Table of cases and bibliography. 1967. 103 pp. Cat. No. FS 5.238:38005. Supt. Doc.

The Student Economist's Handbook. Guide to source materials in economics found in college or university libraries. Tells how to use statistics, a library, government documents, periodical literature. Also an annotated bibliography of major statistical sources. 1967. 169 pp. $1.50. Schenkman Publishing Company, Inc., One Story St., Harvard Square, Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

Teaching about the Negro in U.S. History. Reprints of a *Scholastic Teacher* series of articles. Includes listings of new books on Negro history, special films and filmstrips, and new educational materials related to Negro history and culture. 1968. 15 pp. 25¢. *Scholastic Teacher*. Scholastic Magazines, Inc., 904 Sylvan Ave., Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 07632.

200 Million Americans. Includes statistical information on growth rates, age groups, social makeup, jobs and income, and education. Illus. 1968. 80 pp. $1. Cat. No. C 3.2:AM 3/3 Supt. Doc.

The U.S. and Foreign Economic Aid. Explores questions of foreign aid and current legislation. Includes statistics, data, and bibliography. Special feature in *Intercom*. 1968. 80 pp. $1. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 345 East 46th St., New York 10017.

The Workingman in American Life. Traces a great movement of history by viewing it firsthand through the writings of contemporaries. Relates the experiences of the workingman from 1576 to the present. (One of the *Life in America* series.) 1968. 198 pp. $1.60. Houghton Mifflin Co., 110 Tremont St., Boston 02107.

World Time Chart. Shows standard time differences between New York City and 125 countries around the world. Includes map of U.S. time zones. 1968. 9 x 12 in. Free. Public Relations Dept., Manufacturers Hanover Trust Co., 350 Park Ave., New York 10022.

SCIENCE EDUCATION

Living in Space. Probes the biological challenges to human life arising from space travel, and tells what scientists are doing to meet them. 1968. 64 pp. 30¢. American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

SOURCES

Dropouts. Cartoon posters. Depicts messages understood by youngsters considering quitting school. On heavy paper for bulletin boards. 11 x 14 in. Set of 9, $1.95. Set No. 20-A. (Also sets on such topics as smoking, law and order, and drugs. Catalog free on request.) Joe Kennedy Cartoons, Box 1488, Little Rock, Ark. 72203.

How To Use ERIC. What ERIC is, how to use it as a resource, and locations of the clearinghouses. 1968. 14 pp. 20¢. Cat. No. FS 5.212:12037. Supt. Doc.

The Story of Health. Describes nearly 300 publications and motion pictures produced by manufacturers of prescription drugs. Among topics covered are disease prevention, drugs in agriculture, the elderly, biographies of drug makers, and health careers. 1968. 56 pp. Single copies to teachers free. Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association, 1155 15th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

TEACHER EDUCATION

CDC Handbook. Questions! Questions! Questions! Designed as a teacher's guide to the use of questions in elementary and secondary classrooms. Focuses on the question as a basic factor in the teaching-learning situation. 1967. 36 pp. $1.50. The Curriculum Development Council for Southern New Jersey, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N. J. 08028.

Education in the Seventies. Projections on enrollment, expenditures, and demand and supply of teachers. Planning papers to stimulate discussion. 1968. 44 pp. 40¢. Cat. No. FS 5.210:10051. Supt. Doc.

The Psychology of Discipline in the Classroom. Illustrates latest findings in discipline research. 1968. 81 pp. $1.50. The Macmillan Co., 866 Third Ave., New York 10022.

Teaching as a Profession. One of the *Foundations of Education* series. Touches on such topics as goals of education, history and present status of research, teacher education, certification and economic welfare of teachers, work climate, and professional organizations. By Sidney Dorros, director of NEA Publications Division. With glossary, bibliography, and index. 1968. 122 pp. $1.75. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43216.

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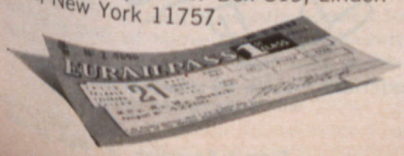

RESEARCH CLUES

This regular monthly feature of brief research summaries is designed to encourage the teacher to become familiar with significant research in education and to conduct action research of his own.

Although knowledge of research findings in instruction can be helpful to the teacher in developing his own instructional program, he needs to remember that research studies on a particular topic do not always agree and that no single study or series of studies should be considered to reveal the final answer.

This month's summary is based on a special report from Philip D. Smith, Jr., professor of foreign languages and project coordinator for the Campus Research Center at West Chester State College on the Pennsylvania Foreign Language Research Project.

Is the "grammar translation" or "traditional" approach to the teaching of modern foreign languages more effective than the currently popular audio-lingual or functional-skills approach?

Yes, according to the three-year Pennsylvania Foreign Language Research Project. Financed by a grant from the U.S. Office of Education, the project was conducted by the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction in cooperation with the Foreign Language Faculty of West Chester State College. School administrators and more than 100 foreign language teachers in 58 Pennsylvania high schools participated. The experimental student population was registered in 59 French and 38 German classes in schools regarded as socioeconomically representative of the majority in the state.

Three teaching strategies were used in the project: the traditional method, the functional skills method, and a combination of functional skills plus exposure to formal grammar. Also, the three most widely used electromechanical aids were included—the classroom tape recorder, the listen-respond or audio-active language laboratory and electronic classroom, and the audio-record language laboratory.

The main findings of the project were:

1. On tests of listening comprehension and speaking ability, students taught by the traditional method achieved as well as did students taught by the audiolingual functional-skills method, and significantly higher on measures of reading, writing, and formal grammar.

2. Regarding the relative effectiveness of the three language laboratory systems, the type of laboratory installation had no effect upon listening and speaking test scores. Classes using a tape recorder only achieved as well as those who practiced in a language laboratory twice weekly.

3. There appeared to be no optimum combination of "strategy" and "system" in achieving the goals of the foreign language program.

4. The best predictors of student

(Continued on page 78)

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☐ **ORIENT FESTIVAL.** New 30-day holiday, April to Oct. Deluxe.

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TEACHER IN POLITICS

With the active support of members of the Orleans Educators' Association, Mack J. Spears won a run-off election for a seat on the Orleans Parish School Board December 10. He began his six-year term in January.

Dr. Spears served as president of the Louisiana Education Association for four years. He is a member of the Executive Committee of the Human Relations Committee of New Orleans and of the New Orleans Chapter of the NAACP, and serves on the Board of Directors of Total Community Action of New Orleans and the United Church Board for World Ministries.

An employee of the New Orleans public school system for 34 years, Dr. Spears is presently dean of students at Dillard University, New Orleans.

—**Warren J. White,** *president, Orleans Educators' Association.*

RESEARCH CLUES

(Continued from page 77)

achievement in foreign languages were the *Modern Language Aptitude Test*, a foreign language listening test, and the language IQ for French and German in grades nine through eleven.

5. The four language skills—reading, writing, speaking, and listening—were found to be highly interrelated, and they correlated significantly with listening discrimination and expressions of student attitude and interest.

6. Students achieved most in the traditional strategy, despite individual differences in ability.

7. Students expected to like foreign language study but became less favorably inclined as the school year progressed. The rate of decline was the same during the three years of the study regardless of the language studied or the strategy employed. Girls had a more favorable attitude than boys. Boys studying German had a somewhat better attitude than boys studying French. The initial attitudes of all students were not related to later achievement.

8. Authors and publishers of commercial functional-skills materials have an unrealistically high expectation of student progress.

9. Girls had a significantly higher foreign language aptitude than boys and achieved better than boys on almost all measures, in all strategies, and in all grades.

10. The cooperating secondary school foreign language teachers were professionally well-prepared by current standards. They averaged 10 years of teaching experience and at least 45 hours of graduate work. An assessment of teacher proficiency by competent observers correlated high with teacher scores on the *Modern Language Association Proficiency Test for Teachers and Advanced Students*. However, the assessment did not correlate with teacher self-ratings.

11. The sex of the teachers had little effect on student achievement in learning French or German, and there was no significant relationship between scores of 89 French and German teachers on the *Teacher Proficiency Tests* and the achievement scores of their classes in foreign language skills after one year.

12. In conclusion, the study indicated that recent curriculum innovations in foreign languages have been widespread, but the impact may have been more superficial than the teaching profession had hoped.

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

GEORGE D. FISCHER, NEA President; SAM M. LAMBERT, Executive Secretary; JOHN D. SULLIVAN, Assistant Executive Secretary for Communications and Public Relations, and Publisher of Today's Education (NEA Journal).

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1969 NEA Convention: June 30-July 5, Philadelphia.

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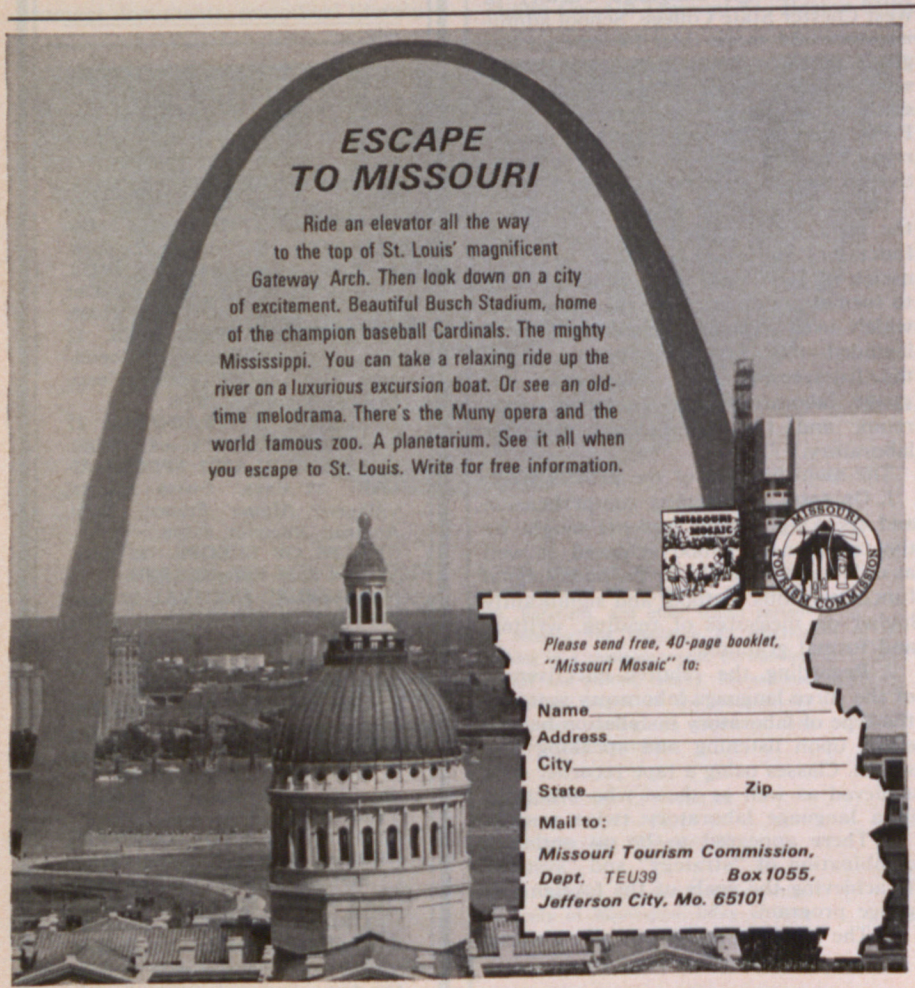
NEA membership, May 31, 1968: 1,081,660.

NEA officers and headquarters staff: See *NEA Handbook*, pages 10-16; 423-24; and inside back cover. NEA platform and resolutions: *Handbook*, pages 66-68.

NEA departments: *Handbook*, pages 155-207.

NEA divisions, special projects, task forces, commissions, councils, committees: *Handbook*, pages 94-154.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from WCOTP, 1330 Mass. Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005; see *Handbook*, pages 382-84.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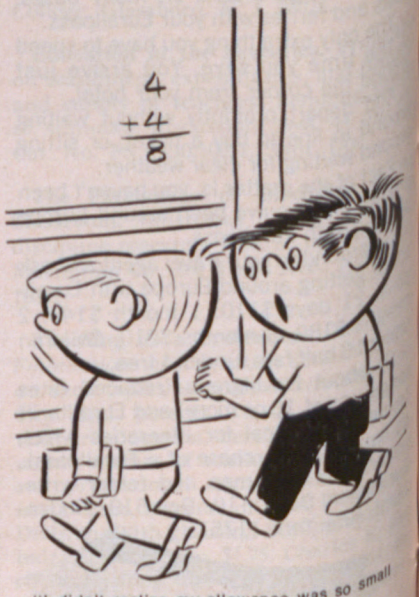

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For information about 8mm and 16mm color films based upon some unfinished stories, write to Educational Systems Division, Doubleday & Co., Inc., Garden City, New York 11530.

What Should Everett Do?

No one really called him a sissy. Everett was too big and broad-shouldered for that. No one really called him anything because, on the whole, Everett's class liked him, and he made friends easily. But there was something about Everett that no one quite understood: He hated sports.

For one thing, sports usually seemed to involve a ball of some kind, and Everett could never understand what was so important about a ball. He didn't feel the least bit annoyed at one, yet teams would hit it with bats or pound it with rackets or kick it as though a little piece of pigskin were public enemy number one.

As for scores or points or wins or losses, Everett couldn't care less. It made not the slightest difference to him whether his team won or lost. Since a victory was often decided by an unfortunate slip or an unusual circumstance, he couldn't see how winning a game proved anything at all.

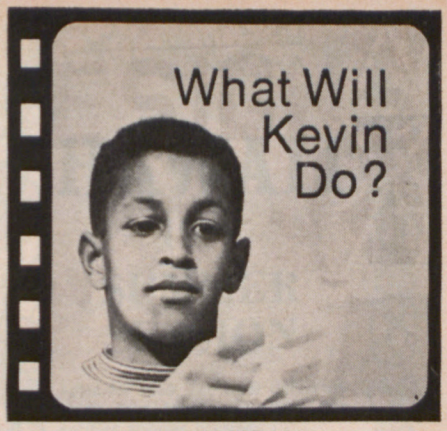
In short, when Everett wanted to have fun, he modeled an entire town out of clay, complete with railroad station and fire department. Or he made a rope ladder for the elm tree out back and hid a message in the hole near the top. Or he took apart an old clock or buried a time capsule or invented a machine that would spray red dye if a spy tampered with it or practiced playing the piano backwards. But the thought of kicking a little ball around the playground left him cold.

His parents worried about him, and his teacher sent home a note wondering why he would not join the ball games at recess. The only thing that bothered Everett, however, was that he was often left out of things. He liked his friends, but they were busy playing softball half the time, so half the time Everett had no one to talk to but himself, and this did get boring.

He didn't like being left out, but he certainly didn't like spending his time in stupid games. What should Everett do?

Thoughts To Think Aloud:

1. Is there necessarily anything wrong with a boy who does not like sports?
2. Shouldn't Everett take part in some kind of physical activity even if it's not a ball game?
3. What sports might Everett try that don't involve teams, wins, or losses? What might he do for the sheer fun of physical exercise?



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Duty-Free Lunch Periods

The lunch period is a popular time of day for most students, but in a number of school systems, teachers—especially those on the elementary level—rate lunch as the most dreaded hour of all. To them, that period is part of the workday, and the idea of having time off the job for a leisurely meal, conversation with other faculty members, or just a few minutes of uninterrupted solitude is a pipe dream.

Fortunately, the picture is changing. Free periods for all teachers are now supported in at least 12 states—California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Washington. And in 1967-68, several hundred local school boards and teachers groups negotiated agreements with provisions for duty-free lunch periods.

Bristol, Rhode Island, was one such school system. The Bristol School Committee and the Bristol Education Association (BEA) provided for duty-free lunch periods for all teachers in their agreement of February 9, 1967. Section 7 of that agreement states:

"The length of the school day for teachers at the secondary level shall be 7 hours including a continuous duty-free lunch period *at least the length of a regular student lunch period. . . .* The length of the school day for teachers at the elementary level shall be 6 hours and 45 minutes including a *30 minute continuous duty-free* lunch. . . ."

Teacher aides, both on the elementary and secondary level, now supervise the lunch periods in Bristol public schools. This method of supervision is one of the most typical in the elementary schools surveyed, according to the *ERS Circular*, "Duty-Free Lunch Periods for Elementary-School Teachers," published by NEA's Educational Research Service ($1.25 per copy).

The ERS sent a questionnaire to several hundred school districts operating elementary schools and enrolling at least 12,000 pupils. Of the systems reporting, 207 said that *all* elementary teachers have a duty-free lunch period *every* day.

Several systems reported that in some or all of their schools, pupils go home for lunch—and, of course, in those schools supervision of the lunch period is unnecessary.

However, where supervision was necessary, various arrangements for supervising the lunch period were reported, and, frequently, the method used varied from school to school in the same system.

The following personnel supervised lunch periods in the 207 systems: (a) teacher aides, 99 systems; (b) other paid nonprofessional personnel, 88; (c) principal or assistant principal, 49; (d) parent

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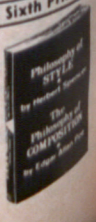

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volunteers, 28; (e) teachers with another period free for lunch, 28; (f) teachers dividing supervision each day, 19; (g) special subject teachers, 13; (h) teachers who volunteer for extra pay, 7; (i) student monitors, 6; and (j) high school work-experience students, 2.

What is the reaction to duty-free lunch periods? Teachers in Bristol—and many other school districts as well—would second the sentiments of an administrator whom the *ERS Circular* quotes as follows: ". . . It is one of the most significant and important programs which we have in improving teacher morale, reducing teacher fatigue, . . . and giving teachers time for better classroom preparation (and) more parent and student conferences. . . . We think it is a must!" —Alphonse Almeida, *president, Bristol (Rhode Island) Education Association.*

CLASSROOM INCIDENT

(Continued from page 73)

embroiled in difficult situations.

Many times, youngsters from minority groups expect someone of their background to champion their causes. In this case, the Mexican-American youngsters looked upon the band teacher as their "prime advocate on the faculty." They probably felt that he should back them in any argument—whether they were right or wrong—especially if the disagreement involved members of another racial group.

And so the band teacher was placed in the predicament of taking action that would make him unpopular with his major boosters—the Mexican-American students. Under the circumstances, I think he acted wisely because he averted what might have been a tragedy. My reaction would have been similar to that of the maligned teacher at Valley High even though it meant leaving my position. •

"Dad's helping me with my ancient history. He was in World War II, you know."

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(Continued from page 6)

I cannot agree with many of Mr. Truesdell's thoughts on the need for teacher expression as an essential element of the teaching act.

I am of the opinion that the purpose of the teaching act is to lead students through a logical analysis of a problem, to point to sources of information to assist in solving it, and to help students arrive at a solution or method of handling the problem in terms that will provide them with skills and knowledge for handling similar problems. The opinion of the teacher (with respect to specific content) is of least importance in reaching the objectives of such a teaching-learning situation.

I acknowledge Mr. Truesdell's need to take a stand and to expose his opinions where they will do some good. However, to take advantage of a captive audience, one that lacks the experience of the teacher and one that sometimes takes the teacher's word as the final and best word, seems to be a dangerous misuse of the teaching act.

—Donald Musella, *assistant professor, Department of Educational Administration, Ontario (Canada) Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto.*

A little booklet, "Teacher Listen, Your Students Speak," has always scared me away from too much teacher talk. A teacher needs to do some talking, however. Many children come from homes where the parents do not have the time or the understanding to talk with their youngsters. Maybe the most important thing we as teachers can do is to give some young students the understanding lacking at home and to others, drive and the spark of inspiration.

I agree with Mr. Truesdell that we have the obligation not only to listen but also to keep the door open for questions that have to have answers.

—Rosalie Oldrieve, *teacher of Spanish, Westlake (Ohio) High School.*

To have opinions is good, to express certain opinions is expected of those of us who teach, but to be an example of our opinions and beliefs is the ultimate in student-teacher relationships. Young people look to teachers for guidance; they do not, I am sorry to say, always find it.

Surely, it is wrong not to have a commitment to life's problems; surely, it is wrong not to provide leadership. We must be more than merely good in this life; we must be good for something. This writer feels that one should be willing not only to speak out but also to lead out with example.

—Douglas G. Bonzo, *teacher of English and advanced placement, Cedar City (Utah) High School.*

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NEA's New President

• **George D. Fischer, NEA's new president, who** stepped up from the position of president-elect six months ahead of schedule when his predecessor, Elizabeth D. Koontz, resigned to become director of the Women's Bureau, has indicated his commitment to strengthen the new image of NEA—that of a dynamic instrument for progress.

Discussing the goals of his administration, Mr. Fischer accords top priority to the following:

- Giving teachers the status they deserve
- Winning a Bill of Rights for teachers
- Stepping up Association influence on teacher education institutions
- Gaining uniform teacher certification standards in all states and a federal professional negotiation act
- Achieving passage of the NEA-supported $6 billion federal aid to education bill.

George Fischer comes to the presidency of the world's largest professional organization well-prepared. He has had 20 years of leadership experience in local, state, and national professional associations and has served in such extracurricular activities as member and president of the school board in his home district.

A classroom teacher since 1945 (at present on leave from his position as teacher of drafting and English at Des Moines Technical High School), he knows children and schools. He believes that one solution to school problems lies in the tax structure and would like reforms that would give the schools one-third support from local tax sources, one-third from state, and one-third from federal.

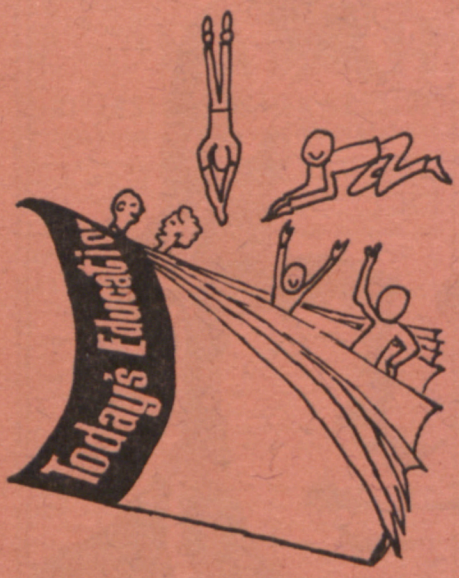
The new president believes that teacher power is the force that will bring the needed new look to education. He points out that educators compose the largest civilian professional force in the nation and that they should have the strongest political influence of any group in America. He believes that they should have the "strongest voice in Washington, outside of government," and strong political leverage at state and local levels.

In Mr. Fischer's words, "We need to double our efforts to initiate and support education legislation, beef up our lobbying strength, show legislators that education must be accorded top priority. I would like to see us have the greatest impact on education and on American social problems of any group in our whole society." He has great confidence that the new NEA Center for Human Relations will place the NEA in a position to provide solutions to the nation's serious social problems and get a good action program under way.

Mr. Fischer intends to devote much of his effort to the political aspects of his position. He plans to spend less time on the road making speeches than have many previous presidents and more time in Washington working with influential citizens and power groups. "I want to see the NEA presidency become a more powerful and prestigious position than the presidency of any other American organization," he says.

Mr. Fischer believes that the full potential of teacher power can be realized only when the education profession is united. "When all educators speak with one voice through a unified organization with a unified program," he says, "we can then zero in on our long-persisting problems with no fear of reprisals and with confidence that only time stands between us and the solutions. Then we'll attain the prominence, status, and influence we deserve." •

EXTRAS FOR OUR READERS



Information Pool

Most of us enjoy sharing knowledge, questions, and problems with people who are engaged in the same pursuits that concern us. If our readers who are doing research or in-depth studies on any topic discussed in TODAY'S EDUCATION this school year will let us know about it, we may be able to put them in touch with one another. Drop us a line indicating your special field of interest, so that if we should hear from others who are working along the same lines and want to swap ideas, we can help you get together.

Any Oversights?

JOURNAL editors wonder if our readers feel that the "Unfinished Story" has neglected to cover some important theme or motif. Please send in suggestions. If the response warrants it, we will try to schedule stories that deal with the two or three most frequently suggested themes.

Idea File Box

Veteran readers of the JOURNAL know that we offer $5 for each "Idea Exchange" item a member submits that gets into print. Since last September, in addition, every member submitting an "Idea Exchange" suggestion, whether or not it is used, has been sent an idea file box in which he can keep "Idea Exchange" items he clips from TODAY'S EDUCATION for his own use. This offer continues. Send your entries to "Idea Exchange," TODAY'S EDUCATION.

By the way, we would like to receive more contributions from members from the following areas, which so far this year have been less well represented in our pages than have others: Alaska, Delaware, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Puerto Rico, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

Index

We still have a supply of the index to Volume LVII, January-December 1968, of TODAY'S EDUCATION. To obtain a single free copy, send a stamped, self-addressed envelope to Dept. I, TODAY'S EDUCATION, Room 801.

Special Feature on Drugs

Single copies of "Students and Drug Abuse" (pages 35-50, this issue) are available free as long as the supply lasts. Send a stamped, self-addressed business-size envelope to Box 1080, National Institute of Mental Health, Washington, D.C. 20013.

Reprints, Bibliographies, Tape Recordings

Each month, TODAY'S EDUCATION offers reprints of one or more articles from the current issue; bibliographies to accompany certain articles; and the opportunity for readers to buy, at cost price, tape recordings of any articles they select. See the coupon for details.

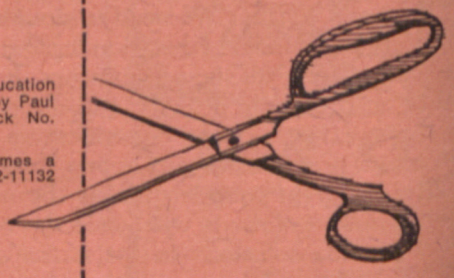
Order reprints early while they are in good supply. Delivery will begin after April 1. Please allow at least three weeks for delivery of orders.

Other articles in this issue will be reprinted if the demand is sufficient.

Complete issues of the JOURNAL are available on microfilm or microfiche from Xerox University Microfilms, 313 N. First St., Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106. The company will quote prices on request.

Reprints of out-of-print volumes or single issues of the JOURNAL can be obtained from Kraus Reprint Corporation, 16 E. 46th St., New York 10017. The corporation will quote prices on request.

Articles from TODAY'S EDUCATION are listed by subject in each issue of both the *Education Index* and the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.*



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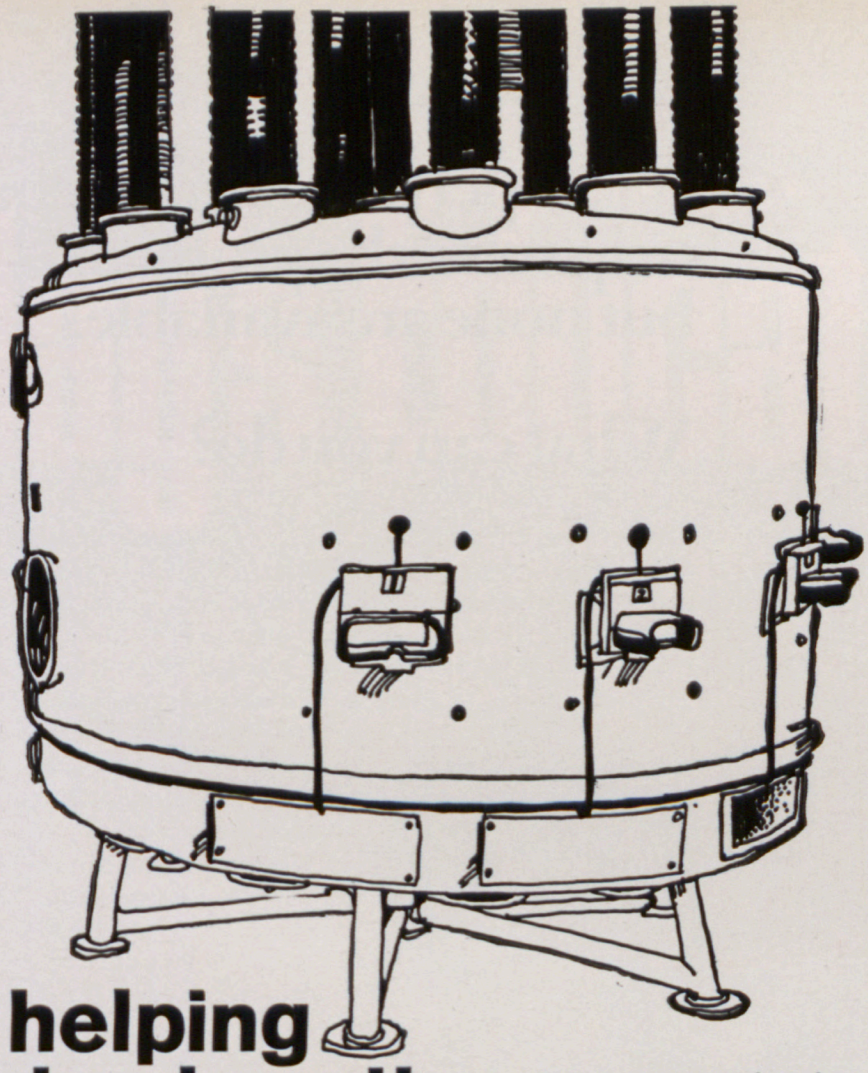

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